The Education Quarterly

A Quarterly Review published in March, June, September and December each year

Ministry of Education
Government of India

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Vol. XII | Summer 1960 | No. 46

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THE EDUCATION QUARTERLY

- This Journal is published quarterly in Spring, Summer, Autumn and Winter.

- It provides authoritatives information on educational programmes, activities and experiments in India and abroad. Its material is presented objectively and is free from bias. The views expressed by individual authors are their own and do not necessarily represent the views of the Government of India.

- Contributions intended for publication should be sent to the Editor, *The Education Quarterly*, Ministry of Education, Government of India, Room No. 31, Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Circus, New Delhi-1. **Only exclusives will be considered for publication.**

- The annual subscription to the Journal is:

India	Rs. 8·00
Ceylon, Pakistan, Aden, Nepal and Portugese India	Rs.12·00
Other foreign countries including Burma	Rs.12·00 or 12 sh.

- *Reduced rate per copy for Secondary Schools:* Re.1·00

Enquiries regarding supply of copies should be sent to the Assistant Educational Adviser (Publications), Ministry of Eudcation, Government of India, Room No. 31, Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Circus, New Delhi or to the Manager of Publications, Government of India, Civil Lines, Delhi-8. Annual subscriptions should be sent to the latter only.

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Editor's Note

University Education, the knotty issues of which call for constant re-examination and fresh thinking, is the theme round which the articles in this issue revolve. Attention has been focussed on the question of the overall reform that Indian Universities require today, on Examinations and, what is uppermost in our minds at present, the introduction of Compulsory National Service for our students. Two Vice-Chancellors and a Dean share their views with us on these topics. Of interest is A. A. A. Fyzee's contribution "Reform in Indian Universities" which we reprint here under our scheme of Educational Features Service. John Holloway writes on "Teaching Honours English at Indo-Pakistan Universities", a contribution of considerable significance to our teachers of English who would have no two opinions on the writer's point that questions that lent themselves to prepared answers by the students should give place to those that would encourage the students to *think* about their texts as literary wholes. Then we have Sumitra Bhargava and Sharda Devi giving an account of education in Canada and the United Kingdom respectively. Ziauddin Alavi analyses the value of discussion method as against the lecture method, while the value of a post-vacation examination over the pre-vacation one has been emphasized by Asim Bhardan. B.D. Laroia takes up for consideration the type of science teaching that should be imparted in our educational institutions. In addition, we have a symposium on Student Indiscipline which, we all hope, will become a thing of the past and no more a subject for discussion.

Reform in Indian Universities

THE AIMS OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION have often been discussed by eminent authors since the days of Cardinal Newman. Broadly speaking, there are four main objects: (*a*) to cultivate and improve the minds of the young; (*b*) to build up their character; (*c*) to fit them to serve their country; and (*d*) to create a centre of research and higher learning in an atmosphere of freedom. A university is not a technical school; it does not manufacture civil servants or mechanics or professional men. But it does give a certain training and balance to the intellect; it fills the minds of the students with an adequate bundle of facts, and trains them to understand their significance and arrive at proper judgements. A university also attempts, systematically and with a consciousness of its duty, to build up the character of the students. And all over India today university men are conscious that in so far as discipline cannot be maintained, the universities have failed in one of their primary functions. It cannot too often be emphasized that if university students do not behave themselves, the fault lies with the universities and whatever the contributory causes, it is the universities that will have to find the remedies.

Variety of Causes

The weakness of our universities is due to a variety of causes. First, there are enormous numbers of university students for whom the proper facilities of teaching, guidance and research are not available. Secondly, language constitutes and will continue to constitute a formidable barrier. Our knowledge of English is poor and to that extent we are not in a position to use this potent instrument for the critical appraisal of subjects. Thirdly, there is on the national scale a lack of coordination regarding universities. Each State is free to go its own way and the Centre cannot enforce rigidly a particular policy. Admitting that this is perhaps the lesser of two evils it is a source of great weakness at the present stage of national development. A notable example is the position of Hindi; another is the three-year degree course. Each university has a different programme, and we can only hope that in such diversity there are not the germs of ultimate chaos.

Now-a-days it has become the fashion to decry university education. Every one seems to know the defects, but no one has suggested the one sovereign remedy for all our ills. Criticism of this character is so widespread that it is worthwhile to examine the question broadly and to discover the principal reforms which should be introduced in Indian universities. Is the position really so hopeless ? Perhaps it is necessary to add the caution that a general sense of panic is the one thing to be avoided.

For an analysis of this problem we shall begin with 1947. As India gained independence, there was a widespread belief that in *swaraj* we had acquired the magic wand and that all our fond dreams would come true. But educationists and their critics soon realized that criticism was easier than reform; that the unerring instinct to introduce the proper remedies for our weaknesses was very uncommon and that therefore reform was a painfully slow business, fraught with enormous difficulties.

Growing Numbers

The very first difficulty, and the one with which I shall begin, was the problem created by growing numbers. At each stage, primary and secondary and higher, demand has outstripped supply, and almost everywhere we hear complaints of shortage of teachers, shortage of accommodation and shortage of funds. The latter two, important as they are, cannot be compared with the most unyielding problem of shortage of teachers. You can manage with smaller funds; you can teach in ramshackle houses, not satisfactorily, indeed, but somehow. But when you are faced with shortage of teachers, and there is no remedy at hand, then matters come to a stand-still.

The long-term remedy for shortage of teachers is undoubtedly to improve the prospects of university teachers and to train them, and also to see that provision is

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made for technical schools and colleges which would absorb a certain proportion of the school population. Canalization of students in the different technological spheres useful to the nation is one of the most important tasks awaiting educationists and planners, and this will also tend to decrease pressure upon the universities. The immediate remedies, however, are drastic but require courage. First, not to admit more than such numbers as can really be taught. This is a primary requirement of sound education. It is generally recommended that in colleges not more than sixty students should be admitted to a class. Even this is too large a number. In times of stress the number may be increased to 80, but beyond that we must realize that class work in the normal sense is not possible, and the quality of instruction imparted cannot be satisfactory. It is no use having classes of 100 or over and deceive ourselves that this is university instruction.

Tutorial Work

With larger classes some kind of tutorial work becomes imperative, for there are a number of academic problems that can only be discussed with the student across the table, and as far as it is humanly possible, such opportunities should be afforded to the student. Discussion of individual problems, criticism of essays and papers, reviews of books or articles—this is the most important part of education, and a student gains an individual insight into the subject when he has the opportunity to discuss it either with an experienced teacher or even a tutor, who is well-read and has kept abreast with the current work on the topic. There can be no doubt whatever that while the problems of number have no easy solution, if we can bring student and teacher more together, we shall be able to see the beginnings of a solution. The solution proposed is that if it is impossible to have a larger number of regular teachers, such as professors, readers and lecturers, at least let us have tutors or fellows who are senior graduates and who will be able to discuss particular topics with the students.

In all universities the magic touch of the great teacher is one of the most inspiring experiences for the student. With increase in numbers, instead of a real, live and stimulating lecture, we have nothing but a factory manufactured discourse catering for the needs of the multitude in a mechanical fashion. Or else, notes are dictated, which are repeated from year to year, conveying little to the student, and not reflecting the intellectual temper of the teacher. My first proposal is that we should try to introduce the tutorial system immediately wherever large classes are held. Even if senior teachers are not available, fellows and tutors may well undertake this work.

Discipline

Discipline is the next question that must be dealt with. Here we have a matter of fundamental importance, for the desire to play truant and break laws is ingrained in man. Indiscipline has become the order of the day in a number of universities in India. The matter is causing anxiety to all educationists, and Professor Humayun Kabir has dealt with the problem in his *Letters on Discipline*. These letters constitute a major contribution to the subject of educational reform in India.

He rightly observes that the problem should be dealt with at the secondary stage, and around the problem of discipline he has given us a critical analysis of the reforms needed in our schools and colleges. Among his most important proposals are that the management of schools should be improved in the manner indicated by him; that the administration of universities should be remodelled and that our examination system should be reshaped. The final examination is unduly emphasised in most of our schools and colleges. Regular work during the year is therefore neglected, unfair practices are sometimes adopted and cramming becomes a matter of habit. For this the reforms suggested are:—

1. Reducing the number of formal examinations.
2. Reserving marks for class work and regular application.

3. Introducing a system of weekly or monthly tests of an informal and healthy character, and,
4. Removing the subjective element in examinations.

Some of these reforms have already been adopted by our universities, but it cannot be sufficiently emphasized that the secret of discipline is a well-contented mind. If the boy is satisfied with his work, if his leisure is well employed, and if he has love for his teachers, his school or college, acts of indiscipline would be rare. We often raise our hands in horror at the acts of hooliganism committed, but unless we look for the deeper cause of the malaise, the real remedy will not be found. Unless we can establish a personal bond between teacher and student, and student and school, indiscipline cannot be avoided. If a boy loves his teacher, he will never raise his hand against him, and he will obey him at any cost. Similarly, if he loves his school, college or university, he will not indulge in acts of destruction or indiscipline. Every activity therefore which can be introduced to bring student and teacher together should be encouraged. The tutorial system, games and sports, debating societies, small study groups, cultivation of hobbies, these are the real defences against indiscipline.

There are of course many causes that lead to indiscipline such as frustration in university activities, unhealthy activities by politicians and economic anxiety. It is difficult to discuss them all here, but if we can instil love and understanding in the heart of the student, we shall have gone a long way towards solving the problem.

Training Facilities

The next problem which I propose to discuss is the selection and training of professors and teachers in the Univeristy. We shall assume that the teachers are paid on the University Grants Commission's scale, and have been selected by expert committees in an objective manner, free from personal, communal or parochial prejudices, and their terms are fixed in accordance with the all-India scales approved by the Commission. But are the junior teachers in a university fit to teach the classes without any training or experience ? In the case of secondary schools we insist on trained teachers, but where universities are concerned, we let loose a young and brilliant graduate in a class of eighty or a hundred students, without any preliminary training. How to deal with large classes; how and where to begin; how to prepare adequately for the lectures; what is the value of dictating notes ? These are questions which in my view could be dealt with better if some kind of training facilities are provided for the younger teachers. One solution would be to appoint a young lecturer on probation and compel him to attend during his spare time a brief course of instruction by an eminent and preferably retired educationist who would give him the benefit of his experience. It is clear that each subject lends itself to a particular method of teaching. Mathematics cannot be taught in the same manner as literature; nor can geology be dealt with in the same way as law. The particular subject has to be taught in a manner appropriate to its content, and yet there are certain broad principles which can be taught and learnt. India is a country where a very large number of university teachers are needed and it is for consideration whether some training should not be provided for them. Apart from individual reading and training in a particular subject, I would recommend three classes of lectures: (1) General principles of university teaching; (2) The preparation of lectures and methods of instruction; (3) How to deal with students.

At the risk of being dubbed quixotic, I feel that an attempt should be made to give the younger lecturers the benefit of the experience of eminent teachers. This experiment, even if it fails, is well worth a trial and its introduction in a few universities and colleges may lead to interesting results. The young lecturer should be induced to read a good deal on the teaching of his own subject; he should also study some broad principles of the theory of instruction in general and he should be given an opportunity to come in contact with the mind and

personality of a great teacher and benefit by his experience. Whatever may be the practice in other countries, we cannot afford to allow our university students being taught by lecturers who suffer from inexperience and ignorance of the principles of teaching.

Exchange of Professors and Students

The fourth suggestion I would make is regarding the exchange of professors and students. This applies more in the case of students than in the case of teachers. In German universities, particularly in the case of Ph. D. students, it is extremely easy for a student of one university to migrate for a time to another university and do some work under another professor. Let us suppose there is a student working under a professor on a certain subject in the M.A. class of a certain university, and the professor is convinced that there is another university where the student can profitably spend a year under another teacher. Facilities of this kind should be provided by the universities, and rules and regulations should not impede the intellectual progress of the student. Often there is the financial difficulty; a student in one university can hardly afford to go to another. In such cases, every effort must be made by the provision of stipends and scholarships to enable him to lead a fuller intellectual life and some under the influence of another first-rate mind. This I consider to be one of the most needed reforms in our universities. I remember some years ago the Rotary Club of Bombay offered a studentship to an Indian student for spending a year in an American university. Apart from other difficulties, such as those of syllabus, studies and examinations, it was found that in India the majority of universities did not allow an M.A. student to pursue his studies for some time at another university. The M.A. course is generally of two years' duration; no student was permitted to work at another university, say, for the first year, come back for the second year, and take his examination after the completion of his academic term.

Apart from students, attention must also be given to the exchange of professors. In most universities today the teaching work is so heavy, that, after a few years, lecturers and readers would welcome a sabbatical year of rest and study, during which they could do refresher courses. As most colleges and universities are unable to afford their teachers the luxury of a sabbatical year, I suggest that an alternative scheme be formulated, whereby professors in a certain university could be exchanged with their counterparts in other parts of the country. This can be done most usefully in subjects like Economics. To take an example, the Delhi and Bombay Universities have well established schools in the subject. It may be an advantage to exchange lecturers or readers on the same topic of specialization. Thus the students of one university will gain by coming in contact with a fresh teacher, and the teacher himself may like to work for a period under a professor who is a specialist in his chosen field.

Although not so favourable to the teacher as the 'Sabbatical' year, this system would relieve the monotony of lecturing on the same syllabus to the same classes in the same atmosphere. The change may bring back to life a spark which may lead to fresh thought and an original approach to old problems. The financial problem could be solved by providing that each university should pay its own teacher as if he were doing his normal duty.

Co-curricular Activities

The fifth suggestion relates to co-curricular activities. A number of universities realize the importance of debates, dramatics, musical clubs and athletics; but attention is not given to art as such. I think the time has come to give students the chance to do painting, classical music and the plastic arts. Apart from the regular university courses in these subjects (if any), provision for developing one of the arts as a hobby should also be made. Our life in the modern world tends to become monotonous in the extreme; we have no time for the appreciation of beauty and art and for self-expression. If a university arts club could be promoted, it would greatly help students to develop their in-born talents, and they might begin to express themselves joyfully in song, dance, painting and sculpture.

The problem of hobbies is intimately connected with that of leisure, and the proper use of leisure is one of the important arts of life. No one can be said to lead a full and balanced life until he has found the secret of employing his leisure usefully and joyfully. A university student is apt to forget that there are other things to do than cram his textbooks; a student far away from his home in a residential university may also have a sense of loneliness gnawing at his heart. It is therefore necessary to offer him a wide variety of hobbies to rest his mind and give him that mental health which is so necessary for university life. Some students have an excess of animal vigour and may like to play games; others may want to express their inner emotions through art and music; poetry and drama; some others may want to play about in a mechanical workshop or do carpentry or indulge in a manual craft like book-binding. It is up to the university authorities to give these students the widest opportunities in this respect.

DO YOU KNOW?

- The population of university students in India has been increasing at the rate of 50,000 a year.

- The Lucknow University Court has adopted a resolution seeking to exempt from payment of tuition fees the sons and daughters of university employees and teaching staff of associated colleges drawing a monthly salary of less than Rs. 500.

- There were 3,772 Indian students in the United States during the school year 1959-60, forming the third largest body (7.8 per cent) of all foreign students in U.S. schools.

- The Government of India have established a Kendriya Hindi Shikshaka Mahavidyalaya at Agra to promote the study of advanced Hindi literature and comparative philology of different Indian languages and to provide facilities for training Hindi teachers and research in Hindi teaching.

Teaching Honours English at Indo-Pakistan Universities

Introduction

SINCE MY VISIT to Ceylonese, Indian and Pakistani universities, October-December 1958, I have received requests for some kind of written document making suggestions about possible syllabuses, and indeed commenting more generally on the teaching of Honours English students in the sub-continent. In drawing up the notes which follow, I am assuming that no one on the spot (most particularly the Indian and Pakistani teachers who welcomed me so generously to their departments) will think that I have forgotten how a full and detailed understanding of local conditions is essential for drawing up anything like a definitive programme of work. What follows are the observations of one who is setting the experience of a visit to the sub-continent against teaching experience in several British universities; and it has been put together with the idea that those on the spot may wish to turn these ideas over in their minds, and utilise them or reject them as they see fit. The notes are based on a study of syllabuses and examination papers in a number of different universities (as well of course as upon my own teaching work in these places and contacts with staff and students) and is not written with any one university particularly in mind.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES, AND SOME APPLICATIONS OF THEM

(a) Presentation of Models of English Prose

My experience was, that the general standard of knowledge of English among Honours students was good; but I think that any sub-continent English Honours syllabus ought to keep before itself the fact that the students are grappling with a language which few of them, probably, actually employ for all their own private written purposes, and one furthermore in which their reading at any level (newspapers, private letters, books on their spare-time interests, etc.) is likely to be limited and also unreliable as regards the language. It is therefore important to ensure that the syllabus steadily presents students, at all levels, with the very best specimens of English *prose:* not simply in fiction, but in the kind of prose —'prose of thought'—which they will doubtless write and speak themselves later on. Conversely, wherever it is at all reasonable to do so, prose which is odd, eccentric, idiosyncratic, and all in all a bad model for the student should be omitted from the syllabus. The upshot would be that, simply in the course of their literary studies, students would gain a firm grasp, for purposes of their own writing, of the best that has been written in English prose. This is something which is an intrinsic part of mastering the use of the English language; but at the same time, it is part of literary studies, and I think that there is no 'language class' substitute for it. No English Teacher can write (which in part means think) like the masters of our prose; and therefore none can hope to teach what their books cannot but teach. To say this is not of course to ignore the value of the language class; but to indicate how one part of the value of literary studies is that they make a distinctive and irreplaceable contribution to language training.

Clearly, early seventeenth century prose is not, in any straight-forward sense, a good model for today; but it would be wrong to apply the principle at present being put forward so rigidly as to exclude all early prose whatsoever, and students would not naturally go so far back in looking for models for their own writing. The more recent authors whom I would above all exclude from lists of prescribed books, are four comparative favourites in syllabuses at present, Sterne, Lamb, Carlyle, Meredith. These are all authors whom I myself, to a greater or lesser extent, admire. I encourage at least my abler students in Britain to read them (though it is very noticeable that almost none of them want to). But I do not think them right for the sub-continent. English literature offers great wealth, and instead of these authors (good as they are in their eccentric way)

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there are always other available writers just as good from a literary point of view, but with the advantage of supplying the student (whether he focuses his mind on this or not) with a model of style which it will be good, and not bad, for him to follow.

I mean by good prose of the kind which the ordinary man or woman needs to command, prose which is plain and direct, vigorous and idiomatic, and above all, free (or as free as it can be) from the abstractions and circumlocutions with which today we native users of English so readily clutter our language; talking about 'the availability of supplies in relation to demand' and such. The authors who seem to me the masters of this style are: Bunyan, Dryden, Swift, Defoe, Cobbett, Newman, Arnold, and in a few of his essays, T.S. Eliot. One would have to select from this list of course; and in doing so would take a number of other factors into account. Several of these names will appear later in this document in other contexts. The point here is; that this kind of writing should have a fairly prominent place in the syllabus at all stages. It should have what in a syllabus for a university in Britain would be a disproportionately prominent place. In particular, if it is desired to impose really detailed textual study leading up to context questions, etc. this is the kind of writing which should whenever possible be used for that purpose.

(b) Avoiding specially difficult texts and choosing texts which would have a specially direct appeal

There are a number of important works in our literature which do not reveal their full interest save to those who have quite a deal of background knowledge. By this I do not mean knowledge of the period when they were written; the need for knowledge of this kind is something which might argue in favour of a book. I mean a knowledge of remote western history (Greek and Roman, or medieval history, say), or mythology, or comparatively obscure literary or other conventions, or earlier literary works. Thus, Shakespear's History plays are often among the less suitable of his works, because a good understanding of them requires some knowledge both of sixteenth century, and of fourteenth-fifteenth century English or French political history. His Roman plays create similar difficulties. English under-graduates still have some rough-and-ready knowledge of western classical history which helps them with this: but sub-continent students must acquire it laboriously or leave the work rather hanging in the air. Chaucer's *Troilus and Cressida* is less suitable than some of his other works, because in it Chaucer is quite elaborately guying some complicated social and literary conventions of his own time (or recent past), and if one does not familiarise oneself with these, parts of the poem will seem arbitrary or even a little silly. Dryden's *All for Love* very much demands familiarity with Shakespeare's *Antony and Clopetra*, of which it is almost a rewriting. Marlowe's *Doctor Faustus* and Milton's *Paradise Lost* of course demand familiarity with some basic ideas of Christianity but it could be said that some notion of these was so important for the student of English that that made a reason the more for selecting them. Some of the best poems of Keats and Shelley, however, (*Hyperion and Adonias* come to mind) require so much knowledge of western classical mythology, if they are not to bewilder, that they are best avioded by all save the most senior students. The same is true for both classical and medieval learning—of Spenser's *Faeria Queen*, unless read in a carefully prepared selection.

Of course, if the above are not studied, or studied only by the senior students, a price is paid: they are among our finest works. My view is based on the conviction that when students can really master a work and make it thier own, it can truly enlarge and delight the mind; but when it is only glimpsed within a mass of what is remote and bewildering, it remains dull and unreal, associated chiefly with 'swotting' and examination passing. I ought to add that I think Spenser and Shelley too hard for many of my students at Cambridge to grasp effectively.

On the other hand, I think there may be some works of English literature which would not, (though of great intrinsic merit) seem

very obvious as prescribed books; but with which sub-continent students could, for one reason or another, make unexpectedly quick and real contact. I am of course drawing on limited knowledge in giving examples, but I hope that even if the examples seem inconclusive, the idea of such texts will itself be carefully considered by those who could perhaps locate examples better than I.

(*i*) Dorothy Osborne's *Letters.*

On any terms, these are a minor seventeenth century classic, written in somewhat archaic but most beautifully supple, terse and genuine English. What strikes me as making the work specially suitable, however, is that the letters are letters written by a dutiful girl, to a good man who is a good and obedient son: the two are in love, but each readily admits that their personal desires are subordinate to the wishes of kinsmen and family. Is this not a situation which students in Britain have to feel their way into slowly, depending on a good historical sense; but where sub-continent students would start with a positive advantages—it would strike a chord for most of them at once?

(*ii*) Defoe's *Tour* and more particularly Cobbett's *Rural Rides.*

Both of these but especially the second are fine models of prose, from the early eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries respectively. But I mention Defeo here chiefly as a companion piece to Cobbett. *Rural Rides* gives an excellent picture of English life, both rural and manufacturing, in many parts of the country; and why I think that he would have a specially direct appeal, is that Cobbett has so vigorous a sense of agriculture when it is thriving and when it is in decay, and of the way that agriculture, industry and politics, come together over a whole region. Both these works, of course, are long; students would study a fairly short section only.

(*iii*) Crabbe's verse.

Crabbe is not of our great poets, but over the last generation of criticism his position has arisen steadily, for the honesty and intelligence of his writing, and for his penetrating and realistic picture of English eighteenth century life both in the countryside and in the town. I believe that sections of Crabbe's *Village* and *Borough* would very readily strike a chord, especially among the students who came from the more modest homes. They would find Crabbe portraying, in great detail, a life which in some ways was unexpectedly like their own at home. Certainly I noticed some thing of this when, as a lecturer at a Scotish university, I had many students from rural areas.

(c) The literary work as an insight into a past period of history and general culture

I suppose it is generally recognised that some literary works are remarkable in part because of how they offer insight into the essential history, social, cultural or general, of their period. Moreover, it must be an important part of at least the better sub-continent student's work in English literature, that it should lead him forward to some general notion of the basic factors in English civilisation at various times in the past. But there are difficulties. Certain works which are good for this purpose are too minor to warrant study by the student, and others pay these dividends amply, but only if a lot of general and background knowledge is also brought to bear on them. Still, some suggestions can be made. Thus, sub-continent students can be expected only to read a strictly limited amount of English medieval literature, and they should probably give all their time to what is so easily the best of it—Chaucer. But in choosing from his works, one important factor is surely that the *Prolog* to the Canterbury Tales offers an unrivalled panorama of medieval society, and the *Pardoner's Tale* a less obvious, but equally powerful, insight into

what might loosely be called 'the medieval mind'. For Elizabethan times, Shakespeare's *Midsummer Night's Dream* or *Henry IV, Part II*, and Spenser's *Epithalamium*, could be used; though to bring out their full interest from this angle would need skilful teaching. In the seventeenth century it seems of high importance that students should get some idea of the decisive political issues of the time, and also of what, in the broadest sense, Nonconformity has meant as a continuing force in English cultural history. For the first, Milton's *Areopagitica* seems to be irreplaceable and moreover, this is a work which surely strikes home to men's practical interests today. But the picture is greatly added to by study of a much less well-known masterpiece like Halifax's *Character of a Trimmer;* short, superb as a model of prose, and making; with the *Areopagitica* and Locke's first *Letter on Toleration*, a kind of resume of the great seventeenth century movements in government For Puritanism, Bunyan's work is the obvious choice; and his prose could not be bettered as a model.

Eighteenth century England can be approached through Pope's *Rape of the Lock* (provided, of course, that the author's own point of view, and all in his time that it stands for, is added in with the picture of life that he draws in his poem). Goldsmith's *Citizen of the World* essays, in the middle of the century, could serve the same purpose, and have the advantages of a certain limited Eastern interest, and of being easy enough for comparatively junior students. Horace Walpole's *Letters*' (like Evelyn's *Diary* of the later seventeenth century), offer a good background picture of the life and interests of 'polite society' in the period, and of taste in the arts and attitudes to them. Both these works are used for the purpose of supplying a background picture to students in some British universities. On the other hand, there is a certain elegant superficiality in Walpole's letters, and I would not recommend them save in a fairly short selection for students who were doing work in some detail on the period. It is above all to Jane Austen that one should turn for insight into British life and culture in the later eighteenth century: Her novels show both the elegance, and the earnestness, of that time, and show these in a unity; while the comparative shortness of her books, their immediate interest as fiction, and her admirable style, combine with this to make her an author who deserves notable attention.

The task of making contact with the nineteenth century as a period of British civilisation is made easier by the existence of a large body of good fiction; but it is a question, of course, of choosing individual books. Several things are relevant to this. How much a book illuminates the period has to be balanced against its length, its difficulty, and the degree to which it will strike a chord in the sub-continent student's own experience. Hardy's *Return of the Native*, for example, seems the most useful of his books in this context, because its central issue is the predicament of educated and intellectualised people who return to the traditional society of their families. Of Dicken's works, I should be inclined to put forward *Great Expectations*, as being comparatively short, as showing the intensity of the mid-century reaction against contemporary conventional values, and as again raising the issues connected with how a modern money way of life impinges upon an old-fashioned rural integrity. Henry Jame's *The Awkward Age* is a fairly (not very) difficult work but very much worth consideration. It is a notable picture of late nineteenth-century English society, and again, its central issue, how true womanly modesty and goodness can survive intact in a 'modernised ' age, is surely one which at least the girl students in the sub-continent would find come home to them. This novel, though short, would probably be suitable only for advanced students. But Jame's early work, *The Europeans*, seems almost to demand a place in any sub-continent syllabus: though it is American rather than British life of which this splendid, short and lucid work offers so outstanding an insight. Finally, I must mention Mrs. Gaskell's *North and South* and Joyce Cary's *A Fearful Joy.* The former is a mid-nineteenth century classic, though not one of the greatest novels of

the period: but it brings out, once for all, the contrast between the north and the south of England which is a basic fact about our civilisation, and also that between agriculture and industrialism in the Victorian period. Cary's *A Fearful Joy* gives the truest, deepest and most humane picture of change in English life over the last seventy years and right up to the present day which is known to me and easy enough for students. D.H. Lawrence's *The Rainbow* does something like this (though it stops sooner) and is altogether more remarkable as a work of art; I doubt that any student would find any part of it embarrassing, but it is certainly a quite difficult work, and that it is so outstanding a panorama of British life entering the modern world does not immediately transpire.

These, then, are the works which come prominently to mind, if one is thinking of how to provide, through the study of English literature, a real and vivid apprehension of English life and civilization at various stages of its history.

(d) Changing literary taste and the stress on 'reality' and everydayness

Speaking in very broad terms, one could say that in most periods of English literature work (especially poetry) of two contrasting kinds has been produced. At one extreme, what is 'poetic', 'literary' and beautiful in a straight forward sense: and at the other, what is down to earth, vigorous, homely. Over the past generation in Britain, there has been a very marked shift of interest from the first of these to the second. In fact, I believe that in Britain the shift has gone too far: but in the sub-continent, on the other hand, it has in the main hardly gone far enough. I am wholly against the virtual writing off of 'Romantic' poetry, 'the nineteenth century' inverse, Milton, Spenser, and even the early Shakespeare which has occurred in some quarters. This results in nothing but a caricature of our literature. But surely the tradition of 'poetic' poetry, important as it is, remains something which the sub-continent student (dealing as he is with a language other than his mother tongue, and one in which literary genres and ideas and traditions which continue from our western classics mean little or nothing to him), must easily find unreal and academic. Consequently, I suggest that it should be shown to him at its very best—in Spenser's *Epithalamium* and *Prothalamium*, in early Shakespeare,• and early Milton, in the *Odes* of Keats, and perhaps a here and there in Chaucer if time allows—and that the other main kind of English verse, that which comes near to lively everyday conversation, narrative and discussion, should be given great prominence. What would this mean in detail ? First, study of the early ballads: and this to bring out their robust strength and direct humanity, not their far away strangeness. Here is an important body of literature which is to a significant degree the literature of the people, and it is easy of access and should have a ready appeal. (Teachers would find that Pinto and Rodway, *The Common Muse* and Reeves, *The Idiom of the People*, help in teaching the early ballads, because they show the link between them and the later town street-ballads, and the rural folk-songs respectively). Second, perhaps, the view that a whole book of Spenser's *Faerie Queene* will be too heavy a dose of what is likely to seem remote and ethereal. Third, a strong stress not so much perhaps on the poetry of Donne as on other less difficult early seventeenth century poets not unlike him: Hervert, Traherne, Carew, perhaps Ben Jonson. Pope and Wordsworth seemed to me to have the prominent places they deserve from this point of view. The next point would therefore be, that (apart from Keats's *Odes*, and a handful of his sonnets) chief attention should be given to Byron's later, satirical verse, and to that great tradition of vernacular poetry which runs through the nineteenth century (obscured though this has been by some recent discussions) in Byron, Crabbe, Clough, Browning, Hopkins, and Hardy. The implications of this are that Browning should get clearly more attention than Tennyson, and that the less important 'Romantic' poets like Arnold and especially Rossetti should be ignored. If this stress is given to the study of earlier poetry, then modern English verse is led into easily, and two caricatures are avoided: one, that this modern verse is unpoetical

conundrums, and the other that it is a wonderful deliverance from 150 years of escapist nonsense.

In putting forward these views I am in no way subscribing to the writing-off of, say, Shelley or Tennyson. Very far from it. But it seems right to stress what the students can make contact with readily, and at the same time be sure to see as genuine and substantial and having to do with real life, not (even if mistakenly) flimsy and escapist. Hardy in particular, more indeed than Hopkins, whose case is more complex and whose work is much more difficult, seems an obvious choice for special attention: and there is at least one good short selection of his poetry readily available.

(e) The importance of literature as affording contact with major ideas

I noticed that several sub-continent syllabuses included papers for which the students concentrated on works of discursive prose; and this seems a very good idea, for reasons partly touched on above. But I suggested that such papers should be utilised to bring out to the student how literature is a storehouse of many of the ideas which interest him currently and practically as a citizen. Again in the interests of stressing the reality and immediacy of the subject, there is a strong case for making the 'literary essay' (Lamb, Hazlitt, etc. etc.) clearly subordinate to prose of another kind. This other kind of prose will have a style which the student should want to acquire, so far as possible, for his own purposes, and it will deal with subjects which should come home to him in their full importance and seriousness. I have already mentioned Milton's *Areopagitica* as one example of this kind of prose. Other such works are: Burke's prose—but careful selection and abridgement would be needed: Newman's *Discourses on the Scope and Nature of University Education*, J.S. Mill's *The Subjection of Woman*, and *Liberty* (I see difficulties here, but shall leave them to others); some of Arnold's essays like *The Function of Criticism*, *The Literary Influences of Academics*, *The Modern Element in Literature*, and parts (though I rather doubt, all) of *Culture and Anarchy* Ruskin's *Unto This Last;* a number of D.H. Lawrence's essays; and among contemporaries, some essays by Bertrand Russell and T.S. Eliot. All these writers, it might be said, deal in modern prose with major problems of a modern society. That the study of literature offers this kind of reading is one of its great merits, one of the things which make it truly educative. Agreed, study of Shakespeare is more profoundly educative. But that is not the most obvious fact in the world. In this field of discursive prose, the student can be brought up against what must convince him on sight of its substance and reality, and what ought to yield a genuine dividend not only to those with a flair for literature, but to all. Hence the prominent place which it should have.

(f) Providing substantial contact above all with 'the best' in English literature

This needs to be given, as a guiding idea, neither more nor less than its true weight. Even were we to agree entirely as to what 'the best' works were, students could not work on them exclusively. Some such works are too difficult for most or even perhaps all students. In other cases, it is right to choose the minor classic rather than the major one, because it will have a specially ready appeal, or helps in a specially direct way towards a grasp of English life at the time it was written. Points of this kind have already been considered. But there should always, surely be some quite clear reason of an educational kind for choosing a comparatively minor work. No other reason will do. Some times, however, I could not quite avoid the feeling that certain authors were being studied simply because a rather relaxed, easy-going—the right word is 'old-fashioned'—judgment on someone's part had simply taken them for better than they are. This is rather a contentious point. Perhaps it is enough to say that to see Galsworthy, Maugham, Lytton Strachey—or most works by Shaw for that matter—prescribed in a British university syllabus would be a matter for surprise, and something which one would certainly expect to see drop out before very long. Behind this, though,

s the more general issue: students cannot be widely read, and so there is always a standing need that they should be got to read the very best, in all periods, rather than something short of that. Acquaintance with major masterpieces of literary art, and a grasp of how great is the stature and importance of works of that order, is absolutely an essential part of studying literature as a liberal education in the wide sense. As I have said, there are indeed sound reasons for choosing from time to time, a minor classic rather than a major one. But those reasons must be there every time, clearly formulated as the necessary support for what would be a mistake without them; and few things could be more unfortunate than to choose inferior works simply for the reason that their inferiority was not clearly seen. This is especially important in the twentieeth century, where a relaxed attention can choose, not a minor classic work instead of a major one (say, Cary's *A Fearful Joy* instead of Lawrence's *The Rainbow*, which was mentioned above —might be the right decision) but more or less 'popular' novels with little or no claim to a permanent place as literature. Galsworthy and Maugham, I am bound to say, seem to me to fall into this class on the whole.

(g) The Place of 'Practical Criticism'

This is a big subject which must be no more than touched on here. I am writing from Cambridge, the home of practical criticism, but I think it must be conceded that if this kind of work is made prominent in a syllabus there can be disadvantages as well as advantages, and that a good English course might easily exist which found no place for practical criticism at least in its examinations. This being said, however, it must be added that the argument for an examination test in practical criticism is very strong. This is not to deny that the work done in the examination room is likely to be very imperfect: but the point is, that only if there is such a test can one be sure that students will, over the course of their studies, give close and concentrated attention to how words are being used in the literature they are working on, and to recognising the local differences, word by word, between the shoddy and the first-rate. Certainly, this work may be done well or ill, and may easily degenerate into a worthless routine; but the firm invitation to do it at all is a great thing, and it is almost sure to be done ill if it is left to go by default. The upshot of this is clearly that some place should be found, in the examinations themselves, for practical criticism.

Certain further points should be made. (1) purely nominal provision is probably worse than none at all. I should think that a reasonable minimum would be (on a *marks* basis) a half-paper; and it would be better to give at least this much space to it in, say, the B.A., and omit it from the M.A. (or *vice-versa*), than to put a fragment of practical criticism in each examination. (2) No genuinely critical opinion can be formed of a mere scrap; if students are asked to write critical appreciations of verse extracts only five or six lines long (I noticed this once) they can usually do no more than explain the prose sense of the passage, or recognise the author, and reproduce something learnt up about his work.

Finally (3) a more substantial point. As time passes, it must be expected that fewer sub-continent students will be studying English literature with a knowledge of the language comparable to that of a native speaker; and it is quite true that there is something unreal about students, other than the best and most advanced ones, and these moreover with a certain flair for literature, attempting to write practical criticism of poetry in a foreign tongue. They are only too likely to get hold of a few dogmatic ideas and apply them as a heavy-handed routine (which is what the less good English students of English do in practical criticism most of the time). In view of this, there might be much to be said for making the main practical criticism effort in the direction not of verse but of prose; and further—especially for the more junior students—in the direction not of 'literary' prose or prose with a mainly (in some sense) aesthetic interest, but prose of the more work a day sort. When students can recognise the cliche of thought or language, when they can

distinguish cogency, lucidity and sequaciousness of argument from confusion and jumble, when they see the goodness of convincing and concrete illustrations and example, and the evil of fine sounding but vague abstraction and circumlocution, when they can distinguish the brutal crudifier from the mind which is alive to the exception and the intricacy, they have already become practical critics of no mean standing, and done so in a field where in a modern society the plain man, whatever his work, needs a trained mind. There are thus very strong grounds for suggesting that the main emphasis in practical criticism, at least with the more junior students, might be put on work with prose. This is not of course to deny that if one can be more ambitious, and produce good practical critics of poetry also, much is gained.

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPLES

It seems useful to sum up the points made so far. What has been suggested is that syllabuses in general should be planned so as :

(*a*) To provide contact, over the duration of the course, with the best models of English prose of the kind which the students most need to have at their own command.

(*b*) On the whole, to avoid texts which are especially remote from the students or difficult for them, and to bring forward texts which might have an especially direct appeal.

(*c*) To cause students to see that some works of literature afford insight into a whole period of past life and culture, and to give them opportunities for studying such works.

(*d*) To take account of modern changes in literary taste so as to stress the element of reality and ordinary vernacular life represented in English literature.

(*e*) To show how studying literature makes contact with a range of ideas which have practical importance in life today, and to afford opportunities of studying works of this kind.

(*f*) To keep free of popular or middlebrow taste, and ensure that students of literature come to study, and recognise fully, literary masterpieces.

(*g*) To take account of the genuine value of practical criticism, even if it is thought that students, or the more junior students, ought to concentrate on prose in doing this work.

ORGANISING THE SYLLABUS INTO PAPERS

This discussion, so far, has dealt with what kind of work should enter the syllabus, rather than with the way in which that work, once decided upon, should be organised into papers. This is a matter upon which a general note such as the present one can offer only a very limited degree of help; decisions depend upon the nature of the staff, on how lecture courses are to be arranged throughout the year, and on other questions which only individual Heads of Department can take properly into account, as they vary in each individual case. In fact, I have only two observations to make, one a minor one, the other perhaps less so.

I was rather struck, in a number of cases, by the fact that the account given in a university syllabus of the ground covered by this or that paper in a course looked more like a nominal than a genuine description of the work which would in fact be done. In most cases, papers looked as if they were deliberately designed to cover a limited area of ground and to do that thoroughly: which is an admirable principle. In some cases however, the syllabuses stated that students would be expected to have a 'detailed knowledge' of the work of several voluminous and difficult authors, and a general knowledge of others. Requirements of this kind turn up, of course, in British university syllabuses as well as in sub-continent ones; but there is always an overwhelming case

for someone's going carefully over a syllabus from time to time, and making sure that what is said will be done, is what can and will in fact be done. The consequences, otherwise, are likely to be a false sense of achievement on the one hand, and a certain degree of cynicism in some students on the other. This may seem a small point: I would not mention it had it not caught my attention in several different cases.

Much more important is the general question of whether to base examination papers mainly, or exclusively, upon a list of prescribed texts. It seems to be a very widespread practice in the sub-continent to do this; and if the syllabuses and the question papers themselves are compared, it appears that very often the students are invited to concentrate very closely upon a few set texts, and to study them pretty much in isolation. One reflection of this is the comparative prevalence of 'context' questions of the straight-forward kind which test the student's mechanical familiarity with a text.

The arguments for this approach are obvious: it means that students inescapably have to read and re-read the literary works which are set, and become familiar with their texts: and it precludes, in large part anyhow, the rote learning of dictated or borrowed notes. Probably there is good reason to have some such papers at all stages in sub-continent university English courses, or at least at all stages save the highest. Even so, this kind of 'set text' paper could be made more genuinely educative if context questions were constructed upon the more modern model of asking the examinee to comment (say in passages from a Shakespeare play) upon the dramatic importance of the passage he is presented with, or its contribution to the work as a whole, rather than simply to locate it and explain verbal difficulties. And I think that progress would be made if it were resolved to avoid all questions which lent themselves to routine or prepared answers, and to put the stress upon questions which encouraged students to think about their prescribed texts as literary wholes, or in the more advanced courses to think about one of them in comparison with another, or to consider sometimes the place which a work has in the period in which it was written. This sort of approach makes for more enjoyable and interesting teaching as well as learning, and it powerfully sorts out quality from the opposite.

Further than this, I suggest that at every stage, but especially every stage after say the first year in B.A. Hons., there should be at least *one* paper, and probably more than one, of another kind. That is to say, a paper in which to do really well, a student *had* to draw on reading which he had done, and thought about, outside the circle of the prescribed texts; and which gave him an opportunity to use any insight which he had gained into the general nature of English literature in a given period, or the ways in which literature was related, in that period, to the whole life and culture of society. The most obvious kind of paper fulfilling these requirements is one with a fairly wide choice of questions on literature over a period (anything, perhaps, from 40 to 150 years). Another possibility is a paper on literary criticism in which the questions are put in general terms,—some of the abiding fundamental issues which confront the student of literature are raised—rather than as invitations to reproduce, or even comment upon, the views of this or that particular critic. I can see that papers of this kind might worry some students at the time of their introduction: though the better students, as soon as they saw the new opportunities being opened up for them, would welcome them. If this is right, though, it might be a wise transitional move to draw up a paper which did not oblige students to read widely for themselves, or try to deal with a period as a historical whole, but which gave plentiful opportunity for this kind of work to those who wanted to avail themselves of it. The printed syllabus would then best contain not only a short list of prescribed reading, but a longer list of recommended optional further reading. It would need to be explained carefully to students, I think, that this reading *was* optional, particularly in the sense that still other works would also help in gaining

further insight, and general insight, into a subject or a period; and that the good student was best advised to explore intelligently for himself and try to form his own expanding perspective of the subject as he went along. A number of the books which I have recommended earlier in this note would come more suitably within this area of further reading and exploration, than as texts prescribed for close study by all.

Teaching, and learning, along these lines is exacting. But perhaps it should be added, at this point, that it is mainly here that the study of literature brings out and trains the qualities of mind which are more than those of the specialist, because they are those central to the intellectual equipment of anyone who has to shape policy, form broad views and take basic decisions; whether in commerce, industry, or administration. In other words, it is only when a university course in literature breaks through to this kind of work that it can truly stand as what it is: one of a nation's major arms for the training of those who will later take responsible or even high place in society.

SUPPLY OF BOOKS

Here is the acutest problem.

In certain universities in the sub-continent, anthologies of verse or essays were in use which seemed to have been first published up to sixty years ago. As a result, the selection they included, and the sort of work upon that selection which they proposed to student, bore no relation to what any recent graduate would see as of use or interest in teaching a class. There is a tremendous need not only for really up-to-date edition (prepared with the special needs of sub-continent students in mind), of major classics; but also for verse anthologies and prose selections, and books (suitable for comparatively junior students) which include a number of substantial extracts of the kind which helps with comparative study, insight into background, and a sense of historical period. Again, some of the points made earlier can only be effectively implemented if a good deal of work is done here.

The matter is one, ultimately, of prestige and of finance; and I should very much like to see it taken up at a higher level than that of English Departments; taken up, indeed, at the highest levels concerned with university education. This is because it needs to be recognised that the elementary edition, a completely modern one and therefore one which needs revision ever so often, and an edition moreover of what is currently thought to be the right book, is a piece of indispensable equipment, exactly on a par with the equipment that goes into the students' science laboratories. To provide such editions in adequate numbers and at a price within the students' reach may or may not require a money subsidy; but it certainly requires a pooling of ideas among several universities, and such a measure of agreement as will enable the right editors to be found and the right books to be edited in such numbers as will bring full economies of scale. As I say, there are some problems of fairly large-scale organisation here. A determined individual Head of Department could no doubt do something, but the question needs to be taken up, for full effectiveness, at a higher level.

The question of prestige, however, may be more significant than that of finance. If a new student edition is prepared, but ill prepared, not good but positive harm is done; the poor edition, just because it is new, cannot but get some year's run, and while it is on the market it keeps any possible better one off. At present, it seems rather as if the best young university teachers in the sub-continent, those therefore who realise that they can seek promotion and are ambitious for it, are obliged to turn their attention in the direction of obtaining—often under great or even disabling difficulties—a higher degree: or of building up a record of narrowly academic publications in learned journals. The new student edition is somewhat likely, I suspect, to be done (no doubt there are exceptions) by someone who does not see himself as competing at that level, or done in a hurry by someone who is hard up. The implications are obvious. But the need is for new books to be prepared by the very best of the younger university teachers; those who will bring to this work the best

intelligence and discrimination, a scholarship least cluttered with drudging pedantry, and the keenest sense of where true educational value lies. This can only come about when it is admitted in high circles (Vice-Chancellors, Appointing Committees for Chairs, etc.) that to have prepared one or two admirable student texts or anthologies is a decisive sign of the outstanding university teacher who especially deserves promotion. Ancillary to this, perhaps, would be a recognition that to spend study leave abroad on this kind of work (it could often be more easily done, because of libraries and contacts, in the U.K. or U.S.A. than in the sub-continent) is a wholly laudable thing. All in all, the question here is one of urgent national needs being seen in their true perspective as against conventional academic evaluations.

THE EMPHASIS

This note has been mainly concerned with making positive suggestions for certain improvements in the university teaching of *Honours English* in the sub-continent. It has not set out to strike a balance between criticism and praise, because that is not what the writer was asked to set out to do. But I should not like to conclude it, without expressing my admiration for the work which university teachers of English seemed to me to be doing everywhere over the sub-continent, doing steadfastly and devotedly despite in some cases very real difficulties on several sides. Indeed, as an Englishman I felt genuinely grateful to see the literature of my language being treated and taught with this respect and affection. Something similar ought to be said of the keenness and interest of the students, their very conspicuous desire to learn, and in general of the very good standard which, despite difficulties, I thought had so often been reached.

SMILE AWHILE

"They tell me your son in college is quite an author. Does he write for money ?"

"Yes, in every letter."

"Sedentary work," said the lecturer, "tends to lessen endurance."

"In other words," butted in the smart student, "the more one sits, the less one can stand."

"Exactly," retorted the lecturer, "and if one lies a great deal, one's standing is lost completely."

Nature and Technique of

Viva Voce Tests in University Examination

THE SYSTEM OF ORAL EXAMINATIONS seems to be the most ancient method of assessing the progress made by an alumnus. In the early stages of human abode on this planet, primitive knowledge used to be handed down from one person to another through word of mouth, and the casket of human memory was the only possible library. A term of schooling in those days was rounded off by an oral examination. Later on, when the alphabet was invented and the volume and nature of physical facilities available to the teacher and the taught increased, the system of written examinations was introduced but oral examinations were never entirely given up. In fact, even today they continue to supplement written examinations. In this country, they are used quite extensively at the primary level; sparingly at the secondary level; and systematically at the university level where they are known as *viva voce* tests. There are, however, some countries like the Soviet Union and People's Republic of China where written examination in each paper, lasting sometimes for more than an hour or two, is only oral. It is not our intention to discuss here the merits and demerits of the written examination *vis-a-vis* the oral examination. Our purpose is to examine the *viva voce* test as complementary of the written examination at the university level.

The *viva voce* test is complementary of the written examination in the sense that it completes the assessment of a candidate's worth already made through an examination of the written scripts turned out by him. It indicates that the oral test is meant to do what the written test fails to do; and thus it completes the latter.

Differences

The nature, scope and significance of the written examinations are different from those of a *viva voce* test in vital respects. In written papers a candidate can pick up five questions out of a usual total of ten, and he is examined in the questions which he chooses. No such choice is available to him in a *viva voce* test. His failure to reply or a bad answer creates an unfavourable impression and brings down marking. Secondly, the range of questions that can be asked in an oral test is potentially very large, and questions can be asked on practically any aspect of a subject. Thirdly, whereas a candidate in an examination hall can take his own time in thinking out an answer, making a synopsis and revision, in an oral test he has no such facility. He must answer promptly, and a *viva voce* test involves *inter alia* judgement of his promptness. Furthermore, the latter test assesses certain traits of the candidate which cannot be judged throgh a written test, *e.g.*, self-confidence, self-expression, and decision-making; and even his dress, deportment and manners are watched and marked either consciously or sub-consciously. Apparently the *viva voce* test is, in scope and significance, much different from the written test. Finally, there is this vital fact that there can be no question of any secret regarding the person who is examiner in a *viva voce* test, a secret carefully maintained in our country in regard to written papers. The open character of such a test is its strength and also its danger. It is its strong point because it involves a frank and open-court assessment of a candidate's worth, so that the latter need have no fear that his work has not received careful attention at the hands of the valuer. It is its weakness because it requires moral courage on the part of the examiner to be strict and correct in marking students with whom he has formed ties of affection and friendship and who might hold him responsible in case their division is spoiled because of poor marks in *viva voce* test. A *viva voce* test involves as much an examination of the examiner as of the candidates; and none who is afraid of being fair, strict and impartial in open proceedings, even at personal cost, should accept this assignment. The lack of secrecy is the essence of a *viva voce* test, and the strong moral fibre of the examiner the basis of its success.

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Assessment of Personality

The objects of education are the development of the human mind, the culture of the student's personality, and addition to his stock of information; and the purpose of the examination system is to assess the progress and performance of the candidate in these directions. The written test is a good method of examining the stock of a candidate's knowledge, and to some extent it also examines the development of his mind. But the development of the personality of a candidate can be judged properly only through an oral test, and a really correct idea of the development of his mind can again be acquired in a similar way. The oral examination is not so much a test of the volume and depth of specialized knowledge of a candidate as of his mental sharpness, his way of approaching a problem and the method in which he attempts to solve it. In short, it seeks to examine his ability to deal with certain hypothetical or simplified situations without the aid of books. It examines what impact his studies have made on his general understanding, to what extent education has developed his mind in points of sharpness and promptness, and how far he has developed the capacity of independent thinking and judgement-making. More specifically, a *viva voce* test seeks to assess the following qualities in a candidate:

(*i*) development of mind and capacity to use intelligence in solving specific issues;

(*ii*) capacity to think logically;

(*iii*) power of critical analysis and independent judgement;

(*iv*) power of expression;

(*v*) self-confidence;

(*vi*) culture including dress, deportment and manners.

The first three qualities pertain directly to the candidate's mind, and they are of academic as well as general interest. The last three (namely, power of expression, confidence and culture) are of vital importance in the building of his career and in his social intercourse with his fellow-beings. The popularity of man, the pleasantness of his personality, and his social and business success depend to a large extent on these qualities; and they can well be judged in a *viva voce* test, not in a written examination.

It is necessary to keep in mind the above facts so that the *viva voce* examination does not deteriorate into a replica of the written examination, and does not become primarily a test of the candidate's knowledge. It is relevant to ask: How far his knowledge of the special area that he has chosen should be tested in a *viva voce* test? The answer is entirely in the negative. It *is* theoretically possible to judge the candidate's stock of specialized knowledge through the *viva voce* examination, but then this should be somewhat superfluous as an adjunct to a written examination which does precisely the same thing. The relevance of a *viva voce* examination lies in the fact that it assesses those qualities in the candidate which are left generally untested in the written examination. As has already been observed, the written examination is a test of the stock of knowledge that a candidate has acquired, but the *viva voce* examination is a test of the mental and personality development that has taken place as a result of his education.

Knowledge as Medium of Assessment

The statement that the *viva voce* test is not a test of the candidate's specialized knowledge but of his mental and personality development, should not be taken to mean that it can be, or should be, wholly independent of this specialised knowledge. The matter is essentially one of approach. Whereas in a written examination the candidate's specialised knowledge is itself tested, in a *viva voce* test the area of specialised knowledge becomes the medium through which his mental and personality development is judged. Theoretically it is possible to promote the view that the *viva voce* test should be held in a general sort of way, without paying any heed to the specialised course chosen by the candidate. This, in fact, seems to a certain extent to be the case when a candidate is examined for recruitment by a private firm, or when he appears in an interview in connection

with a competitive examination, or even when he appears in the *viva voce* test taken as a part of B.A. Compulsory English (as against English Literature) Examination. But it is difficult to think of an oral test of some magnitude which does not have any bearing whatever on any definite branch or branches of knowledge, for in that case it will become merely a talk. It cannot be a friendly chat among equals who get together to have some pleasant time; nor can it be meant to get better acquainted with the candidate as a man. There must be some purpose of the talk; and the question is how closely that purpose is related to the candidate's studies. A future employer may like to judge a candidate's suitability for the job or the members of a Public Service Commission may like to see his general fitness for public service; and B.A. Compulsory English examiners may wish to test his capacity to speak correct and fluent English. But it is difficult to see how these purposes can be fulfilled by avoiding contact with the area of the candidate's studies. If it is completely avoided, the *viva voce* test may consist of only of a few enquiries of a personal or general nature in which case it will be of hardly any value; or it may become a sort of general knowledge test in which case it may be a poor substitute for the written papers. Therefore, the *viva voce* test shall have to use the studies of the candidate for throwing up subjects of talks and discussions, but the purpose will be to judge how far his mind and personality have developed. Relation of the *viva voce* test to the areas of knowledge covered by the candidate will also put the candidate at ease; and the examiners too will also have the facility of selecting questions or posing issues. Therefore, no *viva voce* test which is not superficial can be wholly or preponderatingly general and unattached to any branch or branches of knowledge.

Marking

The marking in a *viva voce* test has to be done in a very careful and balanced manner so that each particular quality is given the importance that it deserves in the total assessment. The tendency sometimes in evidence to ignore the manner in which the candidates express themselves is to be deprecated; and also the tendency to ignore the self-confidence and personality factors. Our own valuation of the six qualities mentioned above will be somewhat as follows

(*a*) Mental development and application of intelligence	40
(*b*) Logical thinking	10
(*c*) Power of analysis and judgement-making	10
(*d*) Expression	20
(*e*) Self-confidence	10
(*f*) Dress, manner and deportment	10
TOTAL	100

If the marking in a *viva voce* test is done in a proper and balanced manner, the results obtained may not necessarily conform to the assessment done through written papers. Since the qualities tested differ in the two cases, and since one set of qualities does not necessarily go with the other set, their assessed valuations would in all probability differ in a generality of cases. It would, indeed, be strange if the marks obtained by a candidate out of 100 in written papers are the same as the marks obtained by him out of the same total in a *viva voce* test. Sometimes there is a tendency among *viva voce* examiners to ascertain either from official records or directly from the candidates their divisions in previous examinations, or their expectations as regards division in the examination for which they are being examined, and to make this the base of *viva voce* marking. But this is wholly unscientific. It is, in fact, against the very spirit, philosophy and purpose of a *viva voce* test. It is a common experience of those who have been *viva voce* examiners for some time that good students do not necessarily do well in *viva voce* examinations, and poor students might do remarkably well.

Examiners' Task

The responsibility of the members of the *viva voce* Board is great from several points of view. In the first place, they have to develop a technique for bringing out the intrinsic worth of a candidate and his real qualities to the surface. These lie hidden underneath his personality, and it is not for him to demonstrate them. It is for the examiners to create an atmosphere in which these qualities may come to the surface easily and immediately so that they may be assessed. If the examiners make no conscious effort to draw out these qualities in the candidate but proceed to mark him either on the basis of such display as is instinctively made or on the assumption that these qualities do not exist in the candidate, this is being very unfair. The assessment must be preceded by most careful human handling. As soon as the candidate has taken his seat, examiners should put him completely at his ease so that a pleasant and friendly atmosphere is created and the candidate is made to feel at home. The test should then begin with simple questions which an average student can easily answer, and more difficult and complicated questions should follow in a graded manner. In the second place, the examiners should carefuly watch how the candidate approaches a problem and frames his answers, and not so much what his answers are, because emphasis is to be placed on the general mental development and not on stock of information.

It is well to indicate that the performance of a candidate seems to depend, *inter alia*, on the nature of questions which happen to be asked, the way in which discussions proceed, the mood of examiners and the value that they attach to their own convictions and opinions, on all of which they have some amount and control. Moreover, the marks gained in an oral examination may have considerable weight in determining the candidate's division and position on the merit list; and the need of impartiality is imperative. It requires some moral courage to be strict in an attempt to be fair while marking candidates whom you have known so well through long association and who may carry sweet or bitter memories with them on leaving the university. All this makes the task of *viva voce* examiners one of considerable delicacy, care and courage.

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National Service by Students

In the pre-independence era, Indian students took very great interest in the affairs of the country. As volunteers they gave immense help during public festivals and *melas*. It was a pleasent sight to see students working in batches for days together during fairs and pilgrimages, big public meetings and so on. There were times when they were prepared to sacrifice a good deal. Some of the students forswore their comforts and even their careers. It all went to show that our students could be inspired by noble ideals.

Yet, of late our students seem to have somehow lost interest in the progress of the country. Their interest has shifted to much smaller things which are leading to acts of indiscipline, inspired very often by agencies outside the Universities. Quite a large number of students are unaware of what is going on in the country. Though they come from villages they have no clear ideas of the various programmes which are being executed in the villages for making the country better and prosperous. Quite a large number of students who come to the University think that they will be taught in the University just as they were taught in the schools and they study very little by themselves. As they read only for two or three months in a year it is difficult for them to read standard textbooks and they have to depend on 'Short-cuts', 'important questions and answers', etc. A number of students who come to the University are not initiated in any games whatsoever. The demand for taking more and more boys in the schools is on the increase. Many of the schools have increased their enrolments to such an extent that they can hardly provide any games for their students. Many new schools have sprung up which do not offer any facility except for mere teaching of books in mechanical manner. Besides the quality of the students coming from the schools is poor. What can colleges and Universities do in such a depressing situation? It is here that the scheme of National Service becomes relevant. What shape should this service take?

In our country manual work is not considered to be dignified. The class of people who get work done by others are considered to be superior to the class of people who work for themselves or others. This leads to a serious situation in villages. At the time of transplantation and many other agricultural operations there is need of labour. Men and women sit idle, they are on the brink of starvation but they do not take part in agricultural operations because their forefathers did not do so. This attitude of mind has to disappear if our agricultural production has to go up and if our society has to get a democratic and equalitarian deal. Villagers have to be educated into practising social equality. Our plans will not work unless the attitude of the villagers changes and unless they themselves are keen on implementing the plans.

The question is whether we can evolve a scheme which will make the rural people realise the need for improvement and how we can use student talent in this task. The Central Advisory Board of Education gave thought to this matter in the year 1950. The first Five-Year Plan of Government had provision for Labour and Social Service for students for a small period and in the second Five-Year Plan there have been a number of schemes of Social Service Camps, Campus Works Projects, and Village Apprenticeships. All these are voluntary. A good deal of experience has been gained from these schemes. Can this experience help us in making national service complusory? The Prime Minister addressed a letter to the Chief Ministers of various States in June, 1958, in which he wrote "I have been thinking that it would be a very good thing for our people if we could have given compulsory service for all young men and women between the age limit of 19 to 22". A scheme for National Service was drafted by the

Balbhadra Prasad, *B.Sc.* (*London*), *F.N.I.*, Vice-Chancellor, Patna University, Patna

Ministry of Education, Government of India and placed before the Education Ministers' Conference held in New Delhi on 8th and 9th August, 1959. The Conference recommended that "(*i*) the question of introducing the scheme on a compulsory basis should be considered after the experience of a pilot project to be operated for a few years; (*ii*) pilot projects of three months' duration consistent with the objectives of the scheme and preferably one for each University, for students volunteering to participate in the programme, may be organized; and (*iii*) a committee may be appointed to work out the details of the proposed pilot projects". The Union Education Minister appointed a Committee with Dr. C. D. Deshmukh as Chairman. The Committee held a number of meetings and made the following recommendations:

Objectives

The primary objective of national service should be to provide more lively awareness on the part of the educated youth of the purposes and processes of the nation's reconstruction efforts, especially in the rural areas, and to inculcate in them a sense of discipline, a spirit of social service, dignity of manual labour and dedication to the cause of the country in order to make up the deficiencies of the present educational system such as lack of discipline, absence of self-reliance, want of maturity and lack of idealism, and thus prepare the educated youth the future leaders of the country, for the enormous tasks of national reconstruction requiring arduous, sustained and responsible work and to safeguard national security requiring a reserve of trained personnel available to meet any emergency.

Compulsion

It is necessary that any scheme of national service must be compulsory if it is to be effective and is to make a real impact to improve the quality of manpower needed by the country. A voluntary scheme would have the drawback of leaving out a good many, if not the majority of students proposed to be covered and would not be assured of success unless sufficient inducements were offered. If improvement on the national scale is to be the aim, which it ought to be, no voluntary scheme can ever hope to achieve it. There can be no objection, on principle or otherwise, to compulsion as it is the right of the State to ask its citizens for a period of service in return for what it does for them.

No exemptions are to be allowed on any ground. The students who are not physically fit for manual work could be asked to do other suitable work. Cases of hospitalisation are in another category and may be exempted only for the period of hospitalisation and legitimate convalescence. In particular there should be absolutely no opportunity for the rich and the influential to manipulate exemptions for their children.

Duration

It is essential that national service should be of a sufficiently long duration to inculcate in the young adolescent the values of discipline, social service, dignity of manual labour and dedication to the country. It is necessary to expose young minds to good influences over an adequate period if lasting effect is to be secured on the growing personalities and developing character of the nation's youth. A period of at least nine months to a year is the minimum required for achieving the objectives of national service.

Stage

The best stage for drafting the youth in national service is when they pass out of Higher Secondary school or Pre-University class and are prepared to enter life or the University. A year's national service at that stage would greatly fill the gap left by the present Secondary education and would equip a young person better both for life or the university. Those entering life would be more mature, more disciplined and better prepared for the responsibilities of their work. Those who go to the university would be more self-reliant, more disciplined and better equipped for benefiting from university education. As a matter of fact, the observation of a young person in national service spread over a year would enable the educational authorities to select better material for university education on the basis of academic and other achievements, and

thus check the growing indiscipline and wastage which are becoming the bane of university education. Those students who are found to be talented and gifted during the operation of the national service should be given scholarships and other benefits to pursue higher education. The national service thus has tremendous possibilities of being utilized as a means of helping in judging suitability for admissions to universities on the basis of adjudged capacity of students to benefit from higher education.

Content

The content should be so devised as to effect an all-round improvement of the personality and character of the adolescent. There need be no dead uniformity—none is advocated—but the following ingredients should be dovetailed in any overall programme for the service:—

(*i*) *Military Discipline*:—The students should lead a disciplined life for nine months to one year comparable to that in the armed forces. No breach of discipline should be tolerated. Adequate sanctions should be provided to deter any breach of discipline.

(*ii*) *Social Service and Manual Labour*:—Social service and manual labour should be rendered for at least four hours every day in the areas selected for work under the national service. Manual labour would be an essential part of the work for every student. The labour and social service may take diverse forms depending upon the locale and the needs of the community. The work should be so organised that the community derives tangible and lasting benefit. This will inspire confidence in youth and also give them pride of achievement.

(*iii*) *General Education*:—So that the national service should not lead to a gap in the education of adolescents, it should also provide broad general education laying stress on the improvement of English, learning of Hindi and other regional languages, improvement of general knowledge, acquaintance with India's cultural heritage and Programmes of social and economic planning, etc. so that the participants on completing the national service are fit and active enough to take their place in life even if they do not enter the university. The period of national service should also be fully utilized for the emotional integration of the youth with the country and ideals it is working for. The service should also provide some opportunities for self-expression in cultural activities like music, dance, drama, but care should be taken to ensure that they do not distract from the main purposes of the service. Adequate reading material such as books, periodicals, magazines, etc. should be provided so that the youth can acquire habits of self-study, critical inquiry and love for scholarship and knowledge.

A programme worked out suitably with the above ingredients should meet the needs of all-round development of the growing adult and lead to integration of his personality. This would not only develop true discipline—physical, intellectual, moral and spiritual—but also inculcate in the youth qualities like the love of the country and dedication to social work.

Organizational Set-up

A programme of national service of the envisaged quality and magnitude should be a bridge between the terminal stage of Secondary education and entry into life or institutions of higher education. Though it will draw upon the resources of the Defence Forces, Universities, Educationists, Government departments both at the Centre and in the States engaged in social and economic development programmes, the programme suggested by the Committee would require for its implementation an organizational set-up which should be broad-based and independent. The programme must be truly national in concept and in execution and should be so devised that it develops the capacity to extend its scope to cover other

categories of citizens in appropriate age groups in course of time. While it is urgent that we concentrate our efforts on the educated youth, the other youth of the country are of no less important for the larger interests of the country. In view of the potentialities of a comprehensive programme visualized, such a service might ultimately cover all the youth of the country, but this will require as a pre-requisite the spread of Secondary education to all young persons below the age of 17.

It is, therefore, suggested that a National Board should be set up to plan, implement and evaluate a programme of national service. This should, however, be preceded by careful preparation of a detailed plan of work for youth and for this purpose, it would be desirable to set up a representative working group of Educationists, Administrators, Defence Experts and other interests.

Finance

An investment in human resources is not to be viewed in the context of economic value of the product of such investment, as the primary aim is to build up educated young people as disciplined citizens and devoted workers so that they are an asset to the nation. The national service is thus to be viewed as a nation building programme and any cost incurred on it would more than repay itself in the long run. The economic value of the productive work which the youth are expected to perform would not be in itself inconsiderable and should be reckoned in any estimate of the cost involved. The cost of national service, though heavy, should not be beyond our means and should be worked out in detail by the Working Group.

Even if it is difficult to introduce this scheme throughout the whole country at one time, it may be worthwhile to try it in some Universities and see from experience whether it requires any modification, whether it comes up to the expectations and brings about the necessary improvement in the quality of the students and their outlook towards life and the corresponding improvement in the villages. It is necessary that the scheme should be started in a proper way and the economy is not pressed to a point where the whole scheme becomes crumbling. It is not possible to provide much help from the University for running the scheme. Teachers have to be taken on deputation but an alternative arrangement has to be made for teaching in the University in their absence and for that also funds will be required. If the scheme is tried only in a small area, it will be necessary to allow all the students participating in the scheme to join the competitive examination till one year after their due date as determined by the birth of the student, otherwise many students who join the scheme will become over-aged or will not get the same number of competitive examinations to take as they would have got otherwise.

A well-written life is almost as rare as a well-spent one. —Carlyle

Roundup of activities
Ministry of education

Plan Coordination Unit

The Draft Third Five-Year Plan for Education, prepared by the Working Group, was presented to the Planning Commission and circulated to all concerned. The document reviews the progress likely to be achieved at the end of the Second Plan, outlines the objectives and targets for the Third Plan and indicates the financial implications of various schemes recommended for inclusion in the Plan. The broad distribution of the proposed plan provision of Rs. 980·06 crores for achieving the targets set out is indicated below:

	Rs. in crores
Primary and Basic Education ..	502·46
Secondary Education	247·89
University and Higher Education	133·69
Physical Education and Youth Welfare Activities	30·16
Social Education and Audio-Visual Education	35·64
Education of the Handicapped	3·21
Scholarships	0·77
Development and Propagation of Hindi and Sanskrit ..	6·27
Other Programmes	19·97

Rs. 14·66 crores has been sanctioned to States as Central assistance on State schemes included in their Educational Development Plan programmes for 1959-60 after taking into account the adjustments for previous years.

ELEMENTARY AND BASIC EDUCATION

Compulsory Primary Education

An informal meeting of the Education Ministers of the six educationally backward States of Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh was held in this Ministry on 5th February, 1960. Common matters of policy and programmes with special reference to the scheme of free and compulsory primary education during the third plan were discussed. The problems of education in areas that are mostly inhabited by tribal people and other backward communities were also discussed at length. It was considered necessary to hold urgently a special survey of the existing conditions and educational requirements of these areas so that, on the basis of the data collected concrete schemes for developing education in these areas, could be formulated by the State concerned. Education Ministers have been requested that the Education Departments of their respective States may keep these in view while finalising their proposals for the Third Five Year Plan.

The Planning Commission has recently intimated the allocation of funds proposed by it for the development of education during the third plan, in different sectors. On the basis of that allocation, the question of State-wise distribution of funds available for expanding facilities for primary education, has been taken up for consideration. A tentative distribution has been worked out on the basis of the number of non-attending children at the primary stage in different States.

The Delhi Primary Education Bill, 1960 was introduced in the Rajya Sabha on

10-3-1960. It has now been referred to the Joint Select Committee of Parliament.

The Bill for introduction of compulsory primary education in the remaining Union Territories has been postponed for the time being but efforts are being made to increase literacy in them.

The draft of the model legislation for introduction of free and compulsory primary education was finalised in consultation with the Ministry of Law and circulated to the State Governments and Union Territories for their comments.

A scheme of research study on an all-India scale in the problem of wastage and stagnation, has been prepared. The scheme envisages the investigation of about ten thousand wastage and stagnation cases in every State, with a view to ascertaining at first hand from the students who left school prematurely and their guardians the following :—

(*i*) Causes of leaving school before completion of the primary course;

(*ii*) Concrete measures that might prevent, or at least reduce, such premature leaving of schools, and

(*iii*) Financial implications of such measures.

The scheme also envisages the study of wastage and stagnation among special groups and communities, such as tribal people, girls and backward communities.

A special study was made of the experiment of democratic decentralisation in Rajasthan. A meeting was held in Jaipur to which the Development Commissioner, Secretaries of Education, Finance and Law Departments and the State Development Commissioner (Panchayats) were invited. Adviser (Primary Education) also attended by special invitation. Suggestions were given for amending the Act and for working out the principles on which the rules under the Act should be prepared.

A report about primary education in Manipur has been submitted in regard to policy decisions to be taken on some important problems.

A special study has been undertaken on "Teachers for Primary schools". A comprehensive questionnaire has been sent to all the teacher training institutions for primary school teachers in India. The replies received are being scrutinized.

Payments have been sanctioned to the following State Governments for the amounts shown against each :

State	Amount in Rs.
Andhra Pradesh	5,00,000
Assam	4,00,000
Bihar	7,00,000
Bombay	12,00,000
Madhya Pradesh	15,00,000
Orissa	10,00,000
Rajasthan	5,00,000
U. Pradesh	22,00,000
West Bengal	5,00,000

Government of India's approval has been communicated to the State Governments for their programmes of expansion of teacher training facilities for 1960-61.

In order to take steps for final adjustment with the State Governments of Central grants under the scheme of All India Educational Survey, a study of all the relevant cases have been made and a comprehensive note giving the present position in respect of all such cases has been prepared. This will be utilized in taking further action for the final adjustment of Central grants under this scheme as early as possible.

A note on the nature and extent of responsibilities regarding the programme of compulsory education that may be delegated to the village pancahyats has been prepared and circulated among the State Governments and their comments invited.

Arrangements are being made to hold during May and June, 1960 four regional seminars at Puri, Mahabaleswar, Bangalore

and Simla. These are intended to give necessary orientation to the Senior Officers of State Education Departments and Directorates in matters relating to the programme of free and compulsory primary education. Working papers on the topics to be discussed in these seminars are being prepared.

National Institute Of Basic Education

(*i*) In view of the concern shown by the Assessment Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education on Basic education regarding the teaching of Educational Psychology in Basic training institutions, the Institute organised a one-week National seminar for lecturers in Psychology of the Post-Graduate Basic training institutions in February, 1960. Dr. Stephen M. Corey, Special Consultant in Education from U.S.A. acted as Consultant during this seminar.

(*ii*) At the request of the Delhi Directorate of Education, the Institute gave detailed guidance in organising a one-week training course for the administrative staff of the Education Department of the Delhi Municipal Corporation, Directorate of Education, and the New Delhi Municipal Committee.

(*iii*) A party of four Sikkimese teachers was attached to the Institute for one week for getting themselves acquainted with the system of Basic education.

(*iv*) Report of the pilot survey for relative costliness of education in Basic and non-Basic schools was completed.

(*v*) The following publications were released from the press during this period:

(a) *Buniyadi Talim*—January, 1960 issue.

(b) Basic Education Bibliography.

(c) Basic Education Abstract No. 2 of 1958.

(*vi*) One Unesco Expert in Arts and Crafts, Shri Musaji Takaki from Japan joined the Institute.

Centrally Sponsored Scheme for the establishment of Post-Basic schools.

Rs.7,929 has been sanctioned to the Orissa Government for upgrading the Government Senior Basic School at Raj-Sunakhala.

Rs. 11,384·32 has been sanctioned to the Secretary, Rajasthan Vishwa Vidyapeeth, Udaipur, as second and final instalment, for the establishment of a post-Basic School.

Rs. 4,000 has been sanctioned as Government of India's first instalment to the Post-Basic School, Tiruvur, Krishna District, Andhra, through the State Government.

Recognition of the Diploma awarded by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh.

In consultation with the Union Public Service Commission the Government of India have recognised the diploma in teachers training awarded by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Wardha, to graduate teacher trainees as equivalent to B.T., B.Ed., L.T. or Post-Graduate Degree/Diploma issued by a University or Education Department of the States, for the purpose of employment under the Government of India. States have also been informed accordingly.

Scheme of Orienting Elementary Schools Towards the Basic Pattern.

Administrative approval has been given to the Tripura and Lacadive, Minicoy and Amindive Islands administrations to implement the above scheme.

Expansion of Girls Education and Training of Women Teachers at the Elementary Stage.

Out of the budget provision of Rs. 70·50 lakhs for 1959-60 a total sum of Rs. 70,37,090 was sanctioned to State Governments in March, 1960 as given below.

State Governments have since been informed of the allocation available to them of a total sum of Rs. 67·56 lakhs for projects to be implemented during 1960-61. The

allocations are made on a *per capital* basis of the number of girls of the age group 6—14 not enrolled in schools.

Name of State	Amount sanctioned in 1959-60 (Rs.)	Allotment 1960-61 (Rs.)
Andhra Pradesh	4,37,090	5,69,000
Assam	1,50,000	1,65,000
Bihar	9,80,000	8,26,000
Bombay	9,00,000	7,34,000
Jammu & Kashmir	1,00,000	97,000
Kerala	—	94,000
Madhya Pradesh	6,00,000	5,68,000
Madras	70,000	4,94,000
Mysore	5,00,000	3,54,000
Orissa	4,00,000	3,61,000
Punjab	4,00,000	3,86,000
Rajasthan ..	4,00,000	3,86,000
Uttar Pradesh ..	17,00,000	13,84,000
West Bengal ..	5,00,000	4,24,000
TOTAL ..	70,37,090	67,56,000

Administrative approval for Rs. 1·00 lakh was also accorded to the Government of Kerala.

Encouragement of Children's Literature Prize Competition

Entries for VI Prize Competition have been received. The result is scheduled to be announced on 14th November 1960 *i.e.* Children's Day. Entries have also been received for the award of five additional prizes of Rs. 500.

Organization of Sahitya Rachnalayas (Children's Literature)

Sanction for Rs. 7,500 and Rs. 10,102 to the State Governments of Madras and Mysore respectively was issued for the organization of Sahitya Rachnalayas for training authors in the technique of preparing literature for children, during 1959-60.

Participation in International exhibitions and festivals of Children's books

The Government of India have off and on been receiving invitations from foreign countries and international organisations to participate in exhibitions and festivals of children's books. It was accordingly decided to make a very selective collection of children's books through private and governmental agencies to be kept ready for being sent to such exhibitions, festivals etc. whenever an invitation was received. Accordingly the State Governments and publishers all over India were addressed and a collection of about 1,100 books has been made. An *ad hoc* Committtee has also been set up to screen these books for selecting the best out of them.

Production of Literature and other Material for Basic Education

So far ten monographs have been prepared. The screening committee has postponed the printing of these monographs for another year. Possibilities to get them printed through some suitable agencies are also being explored.

Preparation of manuscripts on various parts of the source books on social studies and general science has been assigned to select authors, who have been requested to submit their manuscripts by the end of July, 1960. Authors will be assisted by the National Institute of Basic Education in the preparation of manuscripts.

Loans for the construction of Hostels in Basic Training Institutions

Sanctions to the following State Governments were issued for payment of the amounts of loans shown against them:

	Rs.
Bombay	58,075
Rajasthan	50,000
Punjab	68,000
Mysore	68,000
Andhra Pradesh	75,000
TOTAL ..	3,19,075

Financial Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

The following grants were sanctioned to voluntary organisations working in the field of Basic and Pre-primary Education:

	Rs.
Hingne Stree Shiksha Samstha, Poona (Bombay).	2,000
Khalsa Basic Training College, Muktsar (Punjab).	3,000
Gram Bal Shiksha Kendra, Bombay.	9,948
Gandhi Vidya Mandir, Sardarshahar. (Rajasthan).	53,431
Poona Seva Sadan Society, Nagpur.	2,000
Arya Kanya Vidyalaya, Bhopal.	2,000
Gandhi Vidya Mandir, Sardarshahar.	6,307
TOTAL	78,486

State Schemes of Elementary Education Group

For the year 1959-60, a sum of Rs.10·1629 crores has been sanctioned to various State Governments for implementation of their elementary education group scheme.

Pilot project of Improvement of Science Education in Elementary Schools

The following amounts were sanctioned to various States under this scheme for the year 1959-60 :

	Rs.
Bombay	5,000
Kerala	7,000
Madhya Pradesh	5,000
Orissa	5,000
Uttar Pradesh	4,000

Withdrawal of recognition granted to all Institutes in U.K. for the Montessori Method of Education

The Government of India has decided to withdraw the recognition granted to all institutions in U.K. for the Montessori Method of Education, with effect from June, 1961 in view of ample facilities for training in pre-primary education now existing in India. Indian students will henceforth be discouraged from going to U.K. for this purpose.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Reorganisation of Secondary Education

The Ministry is engaged in a comprehensive programme for the reorganisation of the whole system. Major schemes concern the conversion of existing secondary schools into multipurpose and higher secondary type, training of teachers for these new schools, improvement of salary scales of secondary school teachers etc. Central grants are being given to the State Governments for the implementation of their plans on an approved basis. During 1959-60 the following grants for this purpose have been sanctioned to the various States :

	Rs.
Andhra Pradesh	28,52,000
Assam	20,44,000
Bihar	32,51,000
Bombay	33,27,000
Jammu and Kashmir	8,56,000
Kerala	13,63,000
Madhya Pradesh	22,26,000
Madras	34,30,000
Mysore	15,67,000
Punjab	47,70,000
Rajasthan	39,84,000
Uttar Pradesh	34,95,000
West Bengal	89,21,000
Orissa	12,68,000
TOTAL ..	4,33,54,000

Assistance to Voluntary Educational Organisations

The following grants were sanctioned:—

Name of Institution	Amount paid	Purpose of grant
	Rs.	
1. Jeevan Bharati, Surat	2,316	Continuation of Cooperative Training Programme.
2. Jeevan Bharati, Surat	4,470	Continuation of Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.
3. Koshatwar High School Pusad, Bombay.	8,000 (Second instalment)	Construction of Science Laboratories.
4. Tilak Dhari Training college, Jaunpur (U.P.)	(*i*) Rs. 4,450 Non-recurring (Second instalment). (*ii*) Rs. 3,450 for meeting the expenditure for 1958-59.	Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.
5. Kisan Higher Secondary School, Basti (U.P.)	2,500 (II instalment)	Construction of school building.
6. D.A.V. Higher Secondary School, Chitra Gupta Road, New Delhi.	1,404	Continuation of Educational and Vocational Guidance Centre.

Loans for the Construction of Hostels

The following loans were sanctioned under the Scheme to the State Governments for being re-advanced to Training Colleges/ High or Higher Secondary Schools:

Name of State	Amount Sanctioned
	Rs.
Andhra Pradesh	1,00,000
Assam	20,000
Bombay	1,00,000
Kerala	25,000
Madras	1,00,000
Madhya Pradesh	1,00,000
Mysore	90,000
Rajasthan	1,00,000
Punjab	30,000
Uttar Pradesh	95,000
West Bengal	1,00,000
TOTAL ..	8,60,000

Banasthali Vidyapeeth, Jaipur

35,00.00 was sanctioned to the Banasthali Vidyapeeth, Jaipur, for the year 1959-60 for the maintenance and running of the institute.

Central Institute of English, Hyderabad

Forty-two trainees (from ten States and three Union Territories) were trained at the Institute from 15th November, 1959 to 15th March, 1960 in the regular course. Of these six were from training colleges, 12 from Arts and Science Colleges and 24 from High Schools and Higher Secondary Schools.

Of the Research Projects that have been taken up by the Institute, one has been fully worked out. It relates to the preparation of a graded vocabulary based on the frequency counts of words essential for comprehension of textbooks and lectures in the social and physical sciences. A summer course has been planned in Hyderabad

from 20th April to 1st June, 1960 to train P.U.C. teachers of English in the use of this material.

The Institute has prepared teaching material for two distinct courses in factual English,—one for assisting students of social sciences, and another for the students of physical sciences.

A new service has been started by the Institute for Directorates of Education and Educational Institutions in the country. The Institute can now record from master-tapes recitations of poems, phonetic exercises, and talks on the teaching of English without charging any fees, provided tape rolls are supplied to them. One or two Directorates of Education and some schools and colleges have already availed themselves of this facility.

Sixty-eight trainees from all over India were trained during the period from 15th March, 1960 to 30th April, 1960. The Short Summer Course was specially meant for training Pre-University teachers in the use of the vocabulary material on which research has been done at the Institute. The trainees then observed the teaching of this material to three divisions of 80 post matriculates each by instructors appointed for the purpose.

Union Territories

It has been decided that in Government Schools in the Union Territories where the enrolment has been stabilized, all the temporary teaching posts which have been in existence for a period of three years or more may be made permanent, instead of 80 per cent of them as at present.

The President has been pleased to empower the Lt. Governor, Himachal Pradesh to grant educational scholarships on a scale prescribed by the Government of Punjab and in case where no scales have been prescribed by that Government on a scale prescribed by him with the prior approval of the Government of India, provided the expenditure on individual students does not exceed Rs. 5,000 per annum (non-recurring) and Rs. 1,000 per annum (recurring) in each case.

Sanction of the President has been conveyed to the Andamans Administration for the creation of the post of a Principal for the Multi-purpose Higher Secondary School, Port Blair, in the scale of Rs. 350—25—500—EB—30—590 with the usual allowances as applicable to Central Government Servants of his grade in the Islands, with effect from 1st April, 1960, for a period of one year in the first instance.

Sanction of the President has been conveyed to the Manipur Administration to the grant of stipends amounting to Rs. 30.00 per month during their training period to all the existing untrained teachers in Government (Territorial Council) and Government-aided schools who are sent for training, in addition to their usual pay and allowances, with effect from the next academic year.

Central Institute of Education, Delhi

To learn from first hand knowledge about the socio-economic conditions of the villages, the Planning Forum of the Institute organized a trip on the 13th and 14th February to Sohna, Baluda, and Bhaindsi for a sample survey.

The following seminars/courses were held:

(*i*) A short course on the 'Improvement of English Pronunciation'.

(*ii*) Seminars on the Improvement of Handwriting in English of local school children.

(*iii*) Parent-Teacher Cooperation.

(*iv*) Utilization of the Physical Environment in the Teaching of Geography.

(*v*) The Effective Use of Bulletin Board.

Central Bureau of Textbook Research

Analysis sheets for Geography Textbooks for Primary and Middle Grades have been completed and are ready for printing.

A book entitled "Hints to Authors of Social Studies Textbooks" has been completed.

The following two booklets have been published.

Analysis sheet for the Objective Data in the History of Textbooks for Primary Schools.

Analysis sheet for the Objective Data in the Language Textbooks for Primary Schools.

Concepts for the following were prepared:—

Caste System, its origin and future.

How the Community life began.

Mohenjodaro.

A Community on the bank of the Tiber.

Exercises for the following lessons have been prepared;

This is your story
A Buried City comes to light.

A New people introduce a New Way of Life.

Ram, the Bania's son wants to go to High School.

Amenophis' School work.

A Noble Boy chooses to serve a slave.
A Blind Singer builds a new civilization.

A draft for "Standardization of Hindi Vocabulary" for Grades I to VIII has been prepared.

Central Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance.

The Bureau continued the work on the on-going projects in the field of research, preparation of tools and collection of educational and occupational information.

The data collected for class VIII selection Tests Project is being statistically analysed. Norms for Class VIII have been found for Raven's Matrices, one of the tests used in the project.

The various tests of the Science Selection Battery have been discussed, critically examined and modified. Final drafts for all five tests have been completed.

The statistical work for determining the coefficients of reliability of the tests of the above mentioned battery on the basis of the data obtained from the first try-out has been completed.

The work of devising items for the different series of tests to be used for the Merit Scholarship Selection Programme has been completed. Arrangements are being made for trying them out in some of the schools.

A two-day seminar on "Occupational Information" was organized by the Bureau on April 7th and 8th and was attended by 19 teachers from local schools.

Dr. F. M. Fletcher, a T.C.M. Consultant, met Evaluation Officers in groups and advised them on the processing of test material, which they had collected at the various evaluation workshops in different subjects.

A brochure on 'Evaluation in General Science' was brought out, and the printing of two other brochures on 'General Concept of Evaluation' and 'Evaluation in Social Studies' is in progress.

Scheme of Strengthening 26 Multipurpose Schools as Model Institutes.

In accordance with the above scheme of the Directorate the following institutions were selected for supply of equipment and expert guidance during the quarter under review:—

Government Model Multipurpose High School, Jabalpur.

Jagadbandhu Institute, Calcutta.

Sri Ramakrishna Mission High School, Narendrapur.

Maharaja's Multipurpose School, Jaipur.

St. John's Dioscesan Girls' High School, Calcutta.

Sree Maheshwari Vidyalaya High School, Calcutta.

Equipment was despatched to all these institutions and the T.C.M. Consultants spent about ten days with the staff of each of these schools for giving them advice and guidance

in setting up the equipment and in organising the elective courses.

Extension Services

A ten-day workshop of Coordinators of Extension Services Centres attended by 47 co-ordinators was held at the Central Institute of Education, Delhi, from 29th February to 9th March, 1960. They discussed Action Research, Group Dynamics, Follow-up and Intensive work with schools, Audio-Visual Aids, School Braodcasts, Evaluation and Science Clubs.

Seminars

Seven Subject Teachers' Seminars and eight Headmasters' and Education Officers, Seminars in different subjects were held in the various States during the quarter under report. Two Follow-up Workshops were also held at Wardha and Aligarh for Headmasters who had attended previous seminars and had started projects in their schools. Two conferences of Heads of multipurpose schools were also organised at Calcutta and Hyderabad.

Science Clubs

Three conferences for the sponsors of science clubs were held at Cuttack, Belgaum and Jabalpur.

With the help of the staff of the Extension Services Departments, the assessment of science clubs located in the areas of these Departments and financed by the Directorate was undertaken. The reports received are being reviewed. Some of the observations arising out of the reports so far reviewed were discussed at the coordinators' workshop and suggestions were made for strengthening and stabilizing the science club movement.

T.C.M. Books and Equipment

Eight sets of offset printing machines with accessories and spares were despatched to the Extension Services centres at Chandigarh, Allahabad, Patna, Baroda, Hyderabad, Saidapet (Madras), Perianaickenpalayam and Mysore. Three thousand and two hundred books were also despatched to the various centres.

HIGHER EDUCATION

Three-Year Degree Course Scheme

Rs. 14,00,139·50 was sanctioned to the Government of West Bengal on account of non-recrurring expenditure incurred in 1958-59 on the implementation of the Three-Year Degree Course Scheme in the Government as well as non-government colleges of Calcutta University.

An "on account" grant of Rs. 8,50,000 was sanctioned to the West Bengal Government as central share of assistance on account of non-recurring expenditure incurred during 1959-60 on the implementation of the Scheme in the Government as well as non-Government colleges of Calcutta University.

"On Account" grants were sanctioned to the State Governments for implementation of the Three-Year Degree Course Scheme in government colleges during 1959-60 as follows :—

	Rs.	
Andhra Pradesh	2,00,000	(Non-Rec.+Rec.)
Orissa ..	1,50,000	(Non-Rec. only)
Rajasthan ..	1,50,000	(Non-Rec.+Rec.)
Mysore ..	1,00,000	(Non-Rec.+Rec.)
Madhya Pradesh	3,00,000	(Non-Rec.+Rec.)

The Ministry of Education has transferred the entire work relating to the Three-Year Degree course Scheme to the University Grants Commission.

T.C.M. Programme

The following adjustment sanctions were issued.—

(*a*) Rs. 36,410.49 on account of the material (books and periodicals) received by the Institute of Public Administration, Lucknow University under T.C.M. assistance Programme.

(*b*) Rs. 1,92,892.07 for the books and equipment received by the beneficiary institutions under an operational Agreement of T.C.M. as assistance to Home Science Education and Research.

RURAL HIGHER EDUCATION

Grants and Stipends

The following grants and stipends have been sanctioned to the various Rural Institutes during the period under report:

	Grants	*Stipends*
Sri Ramakrishna Mission Vidyalaya Rural Institute, Coimbatore.	30,000	32,625
Vidyabhavan Rural Institute, Udaipur.	67,926	5,565
Mouni Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Gargoti.	1,15,000	5,760
Gandhigram Rural Institute, Madurai.	1,00,000	7,560
Rural Institute, Amravati.	15,309	11,070
Jamia Rural Institute, Jamianagar, New Delhi.	1,20,000	7,500
Lok Bharati Rural Institute, Sanosara.	3,000	960
Rural Institute of Higher Studies, Birouli.	2,55,000	3,565
Institute of Rural Higher Education, Sriniketan.	1,52,735	6,000
Kasturba Rural Institute, Rajpura.	—	2,400
Balwant Vidyapeeth Rural Institute, Agra.	1,00,000	7,470

National Council for Rural Higher Education

The Seventh meeting of the Standing Committee of the National Council for Rural Higher Education was held in New Delhi on 22nd and 23rd March 1960 respectively.

The Council reviewed the employment position of graduates from different Rural Institutes. The number of Agriculture students who passed in 1958 was 65, out of which 60 have been employed. Out of 61 students who passed the agricultural examination in 1959, 36 have got employment. Out of 35 Engineering students, 31 have got employment. Out of 158 students who have passed the Diploma in Rural Services, 65 got employment in various departments of State Governments. The Council resolved that Rural Institutes should regulate admission in accordance with employment opportunities, and that small bureaux should be set up to collect all information regarding likely avenues of employment and disseminate the information to the students for guidance.

The Council set up a Committee to examine the question in detail as to how Rural Institutes could be utilized for the training of various categories of non-official workers.

The Council recommended that a small Technical Assessment Committee should be set up to inspect the Rural Institutes for their effective working.

Assistance from T.C.M.

The following adjustment sanctions in respect of the material and equipment received by the Rural Institutes and the Ministry have been issued.

	Rs.
Audio-Visual Aids supplied to the 10 Rural Institutes.	40,941.70
82 educational films received by the Ministry.	24,817.28
Books and periodicals supplied to the 10 Rural institutes and the Ministry.	34,240.29

The T.C.M. under its agreement is providing to secure the services of Dr. Luther Ambrose, for 21 months, and the assistance of four short term consultants for a period of 4½ months each in the field of Agricultural Engineering, Public Health, Teacher Training, and Methods of Extension. The T.C.M. will also provide research commodities worth $30,000 to the eleven Rural Institutes.

Sanitary Inspectors Course

The Ministry have accorded approval Rural Institutes at Gandhigram and

Udaipur to start a Sanitary Inspectors' Course which is of one year's duration from July, 1960. The syllabus and the scheme of studies have been approved by the Ministry in consultation with the Ministry of Health. The Ford Foundation will bear recurring and non-recurring expenditure for the first 18 months. The foundation has released so far, to each institute an amount of $79,250.

Seminars

It is proposed to organize the following seminars and Orientation Courses during the current financial year:

Home Service Teaching in Rural Institutes and the place of extension for the Home Service students.

Teaching of Small Scale Industries and Extension Programme.

Extension in Social Welfare.

Extension in Co-operation.

Extension in Social Education.

Extension in Agricultural Education.

Seminar in Teacher Training.

Place of Extension in the curriculum for the engineering course.

The expenditure on these seminars is being met from the Ford Foundation grant of $25,000 deposited with the A.G.C.R. Out of this a sum of Rs. 35,903.34 has already been utilized on three seminars held in the past.

Recognition of Diploma in Rural Service

The State Government of Madhya Pradesh have recognised the Diploma for purposes of appointment to posts under them. The West Bengal Government has also recognized the Diploma for the posts of Extension Officers in Industries. Extension Officers in Cooperation, Social Education Organizer, Inspector of Cooperative Societies and Panchayat Supervisor. The Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, and the Cooperative Training College, Poona, have also recognized the Diploma for admission to their institutes.

Diploma in Civil and Rural Engineering

The Madhya Pradesh Government have recognized the Diploma for the purpose of employment to subordinate posts and services under them.

The Institution of Engineering, Calcutta, has accorded exemption to the diploma holders in Civil and Rural Engineering from appearing in the Studentship Examination of the Institution.

AUDIO-VISUAL EDUCATION

The first short-term training course in audio-visual education was held at the National Institute of Audio-visual Education, New Delhi, from 10th February, 1960 to 23rd April, 1960. In all, 27 trainees, sponsored by the Central Government, various State Governments and Union Administrations attended this course and were awarded certificates on its completion.

The next short-term course is likely to commence about the middle of June, 1960. Meantime, the institute at the request of the Directorate of Extension Programmes for Secondary Education, is conducting a special course of four weeks' duration from 2nd May, 1960, for the Coordinators of Extension Services.

Two-to-three days' training in the techniques of operation of 16 MM sound film projectors was given to a group of teachers from the Lady Irwin College, New Delhi, and a group of nurses from the College of Nursing, New Delhi.

At the request of the Principal of the College of Nursing, Government of India, the National Institute of Audio-visual Education have arranged a course of ten lectures for the Master's Nursing Course students.

Central Film Library

43 films, 15 filmstrips and 100 books were added to the library. 500 books were issued to trainees. 2,515 films and 42 filmstrips were issued to 428 members of the Central Film Library. 59 new members have been enrolled, bringing the total membership to 1,337.

124 film shows were conducted by the mobile cinema van. Most of these were conducted in schools, welfare units and for private associations. Besides, the mobile cinema unit conducted a controlled experiment on geography films in S.G.T.B. Khalsa Higher Secondary School, Karol Bagh, New Delhi. The ninth class of the school was divided into two sections and one section was taught through audio-visual aids. Nearly 67 films on 19 topics in geography were shown in the classroom. The results will be analysed from the answer books of the annual examination which will show how far educational films can prove advantageous in supplementing class teaching. The results, at present, are awaited from the school authorities.

Ten meetings of the preview committee were held, in which 54 films and two film-strips were previewed.

41 films received from T.C.M. for N.I.A. V.E. were examined and certified at Bombay.

Applications in respect of 114 films, along with receipt challans, (belonging to the Central Film Library), were presented to the Central Board of Film Censors, Bombay.

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Grants-in-aid

Grants were sanctioned to the following voluntary educational organisations for developing activities in the field of social education:—

	Rs.
Ramakrishna Mission Kumarpukar, Hoogly, West Bengal.	5,000
Bharat Guna Vardhak Sanstha, Hyderabad, Andhra Pradesh.	2,000
Ramakrishna Mission, Baranagar, Calcutta.	2,500
Lok Kalyan Samiti, Delhi.	3,600
All India Women's Conference, New Delhi.	10,000
Ramakrishna Mission Ashrama, Narendrapur, 24-Parganas, West Bengal.	2,700
Ramakrishna Mission, New Delhi.	2,628
Dev Samaj College for Women, Ferozepur City.	3,600

Rs. 60,000 were released to Jamia Millia Islamia as fifth instalment for execution of the scheme of experimental adult schools. The schools started have now been functioning for about two years. The scheme will come to a close in July, 1960, after final tests.

Rs. 3,000 were sanctioned to the Indian Society of Labour Economics, Lucknow, from the Education Minister's Discretionary Fund for Publication of their journal.

The third and fourth instalments of grant-in-aid to St. Marks Boys' Town, Hyderabad, amounting to Rs. 11,879.46 were released through the State Government.

National Fundamental Education Centre

The National Fundamental Education Centre started the training course for the fourth batch of district officers on 18th January, 1960. Twelve officers from the following States reported for training:—

Orissa	2
West Bengal.. ..	3 (including one woman officer)
Punjab	1
Mysore	1
Kerala	1
Bombay	2
Bihar	1
Rajasthan	1

Two research projects entitled 'Village Meeting Places and Community Centres' and 'Reading Habits and Interests of Village People' have been completed and the reports are under preparation.

The following research projects have been taken in hand by members of the academic staff:—

(*a*) 'Health Habits of Village People'. Shri A. K. Sen, Doctor-*cum*-Health Instructor.

(*b*) 'Attitudes of Illiterate Adults to Literacy'. Shri N. A. Ansari, Field Work Supervisor.

(*c*) 'Study of Superstitions and Taboos in a Village'. Kumari Sushila Mehta, Sociologist.

The Audio-visual Unit of the Centre brought out a set of pictures for flannelgraph on 'Problems of Rural Health'. The unit has completed drawing of pictures for the pamphlet 'Use of Audio-visual Aids'. The library of the centre has now 4,110 books.

National Book Trust

The National Book Trust has published the following six books:—

The Voice of the Uninvolved, by Shri C. Rajagopalachari, in English.

India Today and Tomorrow, by Shri Jawaharlal Nehru, in Gujerati and Kannada.

Kalki, by Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, in Telugu and Marathi.

Jwalamukhi, by Shri A. G. Sheorey, in Marathi.

Production of Basic and Cultural Literature

As a result of the second prize competition announced under the scheme, 37 entries have been received in various regional languages, along with their English translations. The books/manuscripts will be sent to reviewers before the awards are finalised.

The History of India

The manuscript of 'The History of India' has been sent to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting for publication in Hindi and other Indian languages.

Expert Committee on Janta Colleges

The Standing Committee on Social Education of the C.A.B.E. had considered the recommendations of the Committee on Rural Education about Janta Colleges and suggested that a small committee of experts should be set up to examine the precise causes of the failure of the existing Janta Colleges and suggest how their specific objectives could be served. Such a committee has been set up. The Principals of all Janta Colleges have been requested to send progress reports of their institutions with a view to helping the committee in its work.

Preparation of Eight Graded Books for Neo-literates

The Hindustani Cultural Society, to whom a scheme for the preparation of eight graded books for neo-literates was entrusted, has prepared the drafts of the first four books of the series. These drafts are at present under examination by an expert committee appointed for this purpose.

SOCIAL WELFARE AND EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED

Social and Moral Hygiene and After-care Programme

Administrative approval for construction of a building for the State Home at Silchar (Assam) for men discharged from correctional institutions at a cost not exceeding Rs. 1,00,000 was accorded to the Government of Assam. The Central Government is to share 50 per cent of the expenditure.

Advisory Board on Social Welfare

A meeting of the Selection Committee under the Advisory Board on Social Welfare was held on 10-3-1960 in which the proforma and rules for grants for the scheme "Research in Social Welfare" were finalised.

T.C.M. Programme

Books worth $3077.40 have been received by the Institute of Social Sciences, Kashi Vidyapeeth, Varanasi, under the O.A. No. 44 Social Welfare Education of the T.C.M. Programme.

The Children Bill, 1960

The Children Bill, 1960 was discussed in the Lok Sabha on 28th April, 1960 and was referred to the Joint Select Committee. In addition to 15 members nominated by the Rajya Sabha, 30 members from the Lok Sabha were nominated to serve on the committee.

Ad-hoc Grants

Rs. 23,880 were sanctioned to the Udaipur School of Social Work for maintenance charges during 1959-60 and also for the purchase of equipment, furniture and books.

Rs. 3,464.16 representing the second instalment of the grant-in-aid was sanctioned to the All-India Women's Conference, New Delhi, for 1958-59.

Rs. 8,000 were sanctioned to the Indian Conference of Social Work, Bombay, for the year 1959-60.

Rs. 800 were sanctioned to the Shrimanta Shankar Mission, Nowgong, for transcribing books into Bharati Braille.

Research in Social Welfare

Rs. 4,000 were sanctioned to the Indian Council for Child Welfare, New Delhi, for preliminary study to conduct a sample survey for the Administration Project in Delhi.

Homes/Infirmaries and Social Welfare and Rehabilitation etc.

The policy of gradual liquidation of homes/infirmaries by rehabilitating able-bodied inmates through various schemes of vocational/technical training was continued during the quarter under review. 253 inmates are reported to have been dispersed from these institutions during the month of January, 1960. In the beginning of February 1960, there were 13,983 inmates in 31 homes/infirmaries spread over seven States/Union Territories. The number of recipients of doles outside the homes on that date was 2,085.

In pursuance of the policy of winding-up small and uneconomic homes by merging them with bigger units, it has been decided to close down the home at Udaipur with effect from 31st May, 1960 and transfer its inmates to other homes/infirmaries.

19 Training-*cum*-Production Centres under the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate continued to impart training and provide wage work to women enrolled with them. During the month of February, 1960, the number of trainees and wage-earners in these centres were 608 and 1,438 respectively.

Surveys of the Incidence of the Handicapped

A survey of the incidence of the handicapped in Greater Delhi, which had been undertaken by the Delhi School of Social Work, has since been completed and a report thereon has been published.

Voluntary Organisations for the Handicapped

Rs. 10,000 were given to the Saket Council, Chandigarh, under this scheme.

Scholarships for the Handicapped

Scholarships amounting to Rs. 10,525, Rs. 6,871 and Rs. 11,079 were given during the quarter for the blind, the deaf and the orthopaedically handicapped respectively.

Special Employment Office for the Handicapped

It has been decided to continue the Employment Office for another year *i.e.* up to 28-2-1961.

Rehabilitation of Displaced Persons and Students

The educational qualifications of 23 displaced persons have been verified from the records available in this Ministry on references received from the various Ministries and the Punjab University.

201 displaced students pursuing various courses of studies have been granted financial assistance through the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, involving an expenditure of Rs. 24,693.

Rs. 19,039 have been placed at the disposal of the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, for the grant of stipends to 60 students belonging to indigent families displaced from West Pakistan.

Rs. 3,54,023 have been sanctioned in favour of the Punjab Government as Government of India share at the rate of 50% of the recurring expenditure incurred during 1959-60 on the maintenance of Basic, post-Basic and High Schools at Rajpura and Faridabad (including the teachers' training schools at Faridabad).

Rs. 23,000 have been sanctioned in favour of the Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Directorate, New Delhi, for the grant of stipends to displaced students from West Pakistan.

Rs. 3,800 have been sanctioned in favour of the Bombay Government on account of the arrears etc. of stipends to be paid to displaced students for the previous three years, *i.e.*, 1956-57 to 1959-60, as well as payment of stipends to a few deserving students for completion of their education.

Rs. 9,861 have been sanctioned in favour of the Mysore Government on account of expenditure incurred by them on financial assistance to displaced students from West Pakistan.

YOUTH WELFARE AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Labour and Social Service Camps

Rs. 1,45,030.25 has been paid as grants to the State Governments, Universities, N.C.C. Directorate of the Ministry of Defence and Voluntary Organisations like the Bharat Sevak Samaj, Bharat Scouts and Guides for conducting Labour and Social Service Camps.

Campus Work Projects

Rs. 2,72,948.00 has been sanctioned to Universities and State Governments as the 2nd/3rd instalments of grants for 30 projects which were approved during the years 1957-58 and 1958-59.

Sports and Games

A grant of Rs. 4,000 was sanctioned in favour of the President, Amateur Athletic Federation of India, Patiala, for the visit of an Indian Athletic team to Pakistan in January, 1960.

Grants were sanctioned to the following State Governments for acquisition of playfields in Educational Institutions, purchase of sports equipment and popularisation of sports in rural areas:—

Name of State	*Grants for acquisition of play-fields*	*Grant for purchase of sports equipment*	*Grants for popularisation of sports in rural areas*
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Assam	—	4,000	4,500
Bihar	—	8,000	18,000
Madhya Pradesh	—	4,000	13,500
Bombay	—	12,000	22,500
Punjab	—	8,000	9,000
Madras	—	7,000	13,500
Orissa	—	3,000	9,000
Uttar Pradesh	—	11,000	31,500
West Bengal	—	12,000	13,500
Andhra Pradesh	—	6,000	13,500
Jammu & Kashmir	—	2,000	4,500
Mysore	—	4,000	9,000
Rajasthan	—	3,000	9,000
Kerala	—	6,000	9,000
Manipur	14,375	—	3,000
Delhi	—	—	5,000
Himachal Pradesh	—	—	3,000
Tripura	18,625	—	3,000
A. & N. Islands	—	—	2,000
L. M. & A. Islands	—	—	2,000
Pondicherry	—	—	2,000
TOTAL	33,000	90,000	2,00,000

The following grants-in-aid were sanctioned to the Institutions listed below:—

Rs. 4,727.50 to the Gymnastic Federation of India, New Delhi, to cover the deficit on the annual National Gymnastic Championships held at Poona in June, 1959.

Rs. 39,000 to the Badminton Association of India, Bombay, for meeting the tourist class air fare of six players for participation in the International Championship for the Uber Cup held in the U.S.A.

Rs. 17,233 to the Rajasthan State Sports Council, Jaipur, for meeting 75 per cent of the expenditure incurred on conducting coaching camps during May-June, 1959.

Rs. 5,000 to the Dhyan Chand Hockey Tournament Committee, New Delhi, for meeting the deficit in staging the 1959 Hockey Championship for Public Schools.

Rs. 3,000 to the National Rifle Association, India, New Delhi, for the payment of annual rent of land for 1959-60.

Rs. 22,500 to the Indian Hockey Federation, Patiala, for meeting 75% of the expenditure for holding five Zonal Training Camps.

Rs. 1,16,966.68 to the Rajkumari Sports Coaching Scheme, New Delhi, for meeting the expenditute on the scheme during the last quarter of 1959-60.

The 12th meeting of the All-India Council of Sports was held in February, 1960. The following are the important decisions and recommendations of the Council:

(*i*) The Council agreed to grant recognition to the Chess Federation of India and the Indian Amateur Boxing Federation.

(*ii*) The Council recommended a grant of Rs. 11,232 or the actual deficit incurred, whichever is less, to the All-India Lawn Tennis Association for the air fare of three players participating in the Wimbledon Championship in 1960. An other grant of Rs. 37,920 was made to the same Assocaition for deputing a Junior Team of four players, accompanied by a Manager, to the United Kingdom and the Continent during 1960 for acquiring experience in International tennis.

(*iii*) The Council also recommended a grant of Rs. 30,000 to the Indian Golf Union for deputing a team of four golfers to participate in the World Amateur Team Championship for the Eisenhower Cup to be held in Philadelphia in September, 1960 subject to availability of funds.

The 13th meeting of the All-India Council of Sports was held in April, 1960. The following are some of the important decisions and recommendations:

(*a*) That the National Institute of Sports should be located at Patiala.

(*b*) The Council unanimously elected Rajkumari Amrit Kaur as its Vice-President.

(*c*) The request of the Wrestling Association of India for recognition was approved.

(*d*) The Council recommended that the following grants may be made:

(*i*) Amounts not exceeding Rs. 20,000 each to the Andhra Pradesh and Kerala Sports Councils for the purchase of sports equipment, subject to voting by a Committee of the Council.

(*ii*) To the All-India Lawn Tennis Association for holding the annual Inter-State Junior Championships and a training camp during 1960 to the extent of Rs. 5,000 and 75 per cent of the admissible expenditure respectively.

(*iii*) Rs. 982. to the Amateur Athletic Federation of India for expenditure incurred on a meet during the visit of an American Track and Field team in April, 1959.

(*e*) The Council approved in principle the proposal to give financial assistance to the Rajasthan Sports Council to hold a few coaching camps.

Rs. 10,000 was placed at the disposal of the following Centrally Administered Areas for giving financial assistance to Educational Institutions for the purchase of Sports Equipment:—

	Rs.
Delhi	4,000
Tripura	3,000
Manipur	3,000

Scouting and Guiding

Rs. 60,000 (third instalment) was sanctioned in favour of the Bharat Scouts and Guides, National Headquarters, New Delhi, for the construction of their All-India Training centre at Pachmarhi and also another sum of Rs. 45,000. for meeting the orgnisational and administrative expenses of the National Headquarters for the year 1959-60.

Committee on Coordination and Integration of Physical Education, Recreation and Youth Welfare Schemes

A Committee has been appointed under the Chairmanship of Pandit H.N. Kunzru to evaluate the respective merits of various schemes for physical education, recreation, character building and discipline operating in educational institutions and to recommend measures for developing the most useful of these. A questionnaire for eliciting as much information as possible in order to have a comprehensive picture of the actual working of various schemes, was issued to about 11,000 high/higher secondary schools, colleges and univesities in the country. More than two thousand replies have been received.

Physical Education and Recreation

Financial assistance to the following institutions has been given by the Ministry of Education during February—March 1960 for the promotion of physical education and recreation activities:—

(*i*) Rs. 16,800 to the K.S.M.Y.M Samiti, Lonavala, (Poona) towards its recurring expenditure.

(*ii*) Rs. 51,337 to the indigenous physical cultural institutions in Bombay, Kerala, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Mysore and Rajasthan States for the promotion of Physical Cultural Activities under the Ministry's Scheme of grants to Vyamshalas.

(*iii*) Rs. 4.3 lakhs to the Board of Governors Lakshmibai College of Physical Education (Gwalior) to meet the expenditure on the construction work of the college and other recurring and non-recurring expenditure during 1959-60, bringing the total grant sanctioned for this purpose during 1959-60 to Rs. 11.1 lakhs.

The Tenth Meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Physical Education and Recreation was held at New Delhi on 16th April, 1960. Some of the important recommendations of the Board are as follows:—

(*i*) A committee constituted by the Ministry of Education in consultation with the Ministry of Health should evaluate the therapeutic value of yogic asanas and suggest ways and means for the scientific development of yogic institutions after visiting them.

(*ii*) The Board also reviewed the results of the National Physical Efficiency Drive. It was emphasised that the Drive should be implemented on a more extensive scale and with greater intensity during the coming year.

(*iii*) That the colleges of physical education should evaluate the efficacy of the tests under the drive on the basis of the data available. The reports of the colleges of physical education will be placed before a Committee of the Board which will examine the question of modification of the tests, if necessary. Meanwhile the tests will continue throughout the country.

(*iv*) Acceptance of the proposal made by Shri P.M. Joseph that India's representatives be deputed to

important international conferences of physical education and recreation.

(v) That two pilot projects, one urban and one rural, may be undertaken to work on an experimental basis and to decide which recreational activities are of maximum value.

National Physical Efficiency Drive

The National Physical Efficiency Drive was formally launched by the Government of India on a countrywide scale during the second week of February, 1960. With a view to giving adequate publicity to the Drive, cooperation of the Ministries of Information and Broadcasting and Community Development was enlisted. About 50,000 attractive posters in English and Hindi were distributed among the State Governments to help them to give publicity to the Drive. A proposal to prepare a film on the Drive has since been accepted by the Ministry of Education. Rs. 9,700 was also sanctioned by the Ministry of Education to cover expenses incurred on a special function organised by the Ministry at New Delhi with the cooperation of the Director of Education, Delhi, to mark the inauguration of the Drive.

Students' Tours

Rs. 11,446.25 has been paid direct to seven institutions during the period under report for the benefit of 189 students and teachers. Rs. 1,832. has also been paid to the Government of West Bengal for enabling it to disburse grants to eligible educational institutions within its territorial jurisdiction.

Inter-University Youth Festival

A meeting of the representatives of universities in the country was held on 23rd April, 1960. Representatives of 29 universities discussed the arrangements for the VII Inter-University Youth Festival to be held at New Delhi from 25th October to 3rd November, 1960. The next Festival will mark the introduction of a few new items like, Student—poets' Symposium, exhibition of selected university and college magazines etc.

Bal Bhavan

Rs. 20,000 was sanctioned to the Centre which is a recreational centre for the children of the Capital, towards its normal expenditure.

National Discipline Scheme

The total expenditure on the Scheme during the year 1959-60 amounted to Rs. 14.65 lakhs approximately.

So far 750 instructors are under training and when posted to their schools in July will cover roughly 380 new schools, thus bringing the number of schools under the scheme to about a thousand.

PROPAGATION OF HINDI AND EVOLVING OF TECHNICAL TERMINOLOGY

Hindi Encyclopaedia

Rs. 35,000 has been given to the Nagari Pracharini Sabha, Varanasi, for the preparation of Hindi Encyclopaedia during the quarter under report. This is the ninth instalment out of the total grant of Rs. 7.0 lakhs sanctioned for the purpose.

Reorganisation of Akhil Bharatiya Hindi Mahavidyalaya, Agra

Consequent upon this Ministry's decision to reorganise the Akhil Bharatiya Hindi Mahavidyalaya, Agra—to be named as Kendriya Hindi Shiksha Mahavidyalaya, Agra—the Ministry has set up an autonomous body to manage the affairs of the Mahavidyalaya. The first meeting of the Governing Council of the Mandal was held on 14th April, 1960, to chalk out their further programme.

Appointment of Hindi teachers

Rs. 7,19,992 have been released to non-Hindi speaking States during the quarter under report under the above Centrally sponsored scheme.

Payment of Grants to Hindi Organisations

The following grants have been sanctioned during the period under report:—

Name of Organisation	*Amount*	*Purpose*
Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Allahabad	Rs. 10,500	Preparation of English-Hindi Dictionary.
*Andhra University, Waltair	Rs. 2,150	Morphic and phonemic analysis of Telugu language.
*Mysore University, Mysore	Rs. 2,575	Morphic and phonemic analysis of Kanada language.
Shri Shardul Sanskrit Vidyapeeth, Bikaner	Rs. 10,200	Purchase of books for library and furniture.

*Amounts were not actually drawn during the financial year 1959-60.

Preparation of Manuals on the Basis of Terminology Evolved

Manuals on Education (General), Education (Psychology), Commerce and Zoology have been completed and are now under examination. Manual on Medicine has been finalised and is being printed.

Board of Scientific Terminology

Total number of terms evolved up to 31st March, 1960, is 2,24,368 and the total number approved by the Expert Committees up to 15th April, 1960, is 1,23,318.

Translation of Standard Works of University Level into Hindi

The Standing Advisory Committee set up for this purpose met on 9th December, 1959, and made certain recommendations. These have been accepted by the Government and action to implement them has been initiated.

Research Scholarships to the Products of Traditional Sanskrit Pathshalas

A scheme has been formulated to award research scholarships to the students of traditional Sanskrit *Pathshalas*. It has also been decided to institute a prize scheme for producing three standard/modern graded readers in Sanskrit mainly intended for pupils of the middle or lower secondary stage.

Central Hindi Directorate

In pursuance of the decision of the Government of India to promote and propagate Hindi, a "Central Hindi Directorate", of the status of a subordinate office has been set up with effect from 1st March, 1960.

UNESCO ACTIVITIES

Indian National Commission for Unesco

A Committee appointed by the Chairman of the Executive Board of the Indian National Commission for Unesco to review the Constitution of the Indian National Commission met on 10th March, 1960, reviewed the existing Constitution and recommended a number of important changes.

Executive Board of Unesco

The 56th Session of the Executive Board was held at Paris from 4th to 29th April, 1960. Among other items, the Board discussed the draft programme and budget of the General Conference of Unesco to be held in November-December, 1960, in Paris.

World Conference on Adult Education 1960

Unesco is planning to organize a World Conference on Adult Education in Montreal (Canada) from 22nd to 31st August, 1960.

The Government of India have provisionally accepted the invitation. The selection of the participants is now under consideration.

International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education.

An International Seminar on Bilingualism in Education is to be held in the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth (U.K.) from 20th August to 2nd September, 1960 under the auspices of the U.K. National Commission for Unesco. The Indian National Commission has been invited and it is proposed to nominate an Indian scholar from the U.K. to participate in this seminar.

Visit of Unesco Officials and Others to India

Mr. Jacques Havet of Unesco's Department of Cultural Activities visited New Delhi in February 1960. He discussed with the authorities concerned India's role in the implementation of the East-West Major Project, including the establishment of an Associated Institution for the study and preservation of Cultural values in Delhi. Prof. E. Cleland of the Botany Department of the Indiana University, U.S.A. and a member of U.S. National Commission for Unesco, visited Delhi in March, 1960. The Indian National Commission for Unesco arranged meetings between Prof. Cleland and some local members of the Commission.

Unesco Associated Youth Enterprises System

The Indian National Commission has forwarded the following additional proposals to Unesco for inclusion in their system of Associated Youth Enterprises:—

(1) Socially maladjusted youth (Sponsored by the Andhra Government).

(2) Youth Documentation and Information Centre for South East-Asia (Sponsored by the Indian Organizing Committee for Training Projects in Work Camp methods and Technique in South-East Asia, New Delhi).

Unesco has made some suggestions in connection with the first proposal with a view to making it eligible for inclusion in the system. These suggestions have been brought to the notice of Andhra Pradesh Government for their consideration.

Aid to the Asian Theatre Institute under Unesco's Participation Programme.

Unesco has agreed to give the following aid to the above Institute: Equipment up to the value of $2,000; Financial aid of $500 for holding a meeting of experts in dramatic art; Aid upto an amount not exceeding $7,500 for four study grants.

Unesco Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance for 1960-61 and 1961-62.

The U.N. Expanded Technical Assistance Programme will henceforth be formulated on a biennial basis. The proposals for 1961-62 have been sent to the Ministry of Finance (Department of Economic Affairs) by the end of May, 1960. The parties concerned have been addressed in the matter and a coordinated request based on their replies will be transmitted to the authorities through the Department of Economic Affairs.

Encyclopaedia in Filmed Form

The Unesco has asked for information pertaining to films made of great men, distinguished in Education, Science and Culture with a view to preparing an Encyclopaedia in a filmed form. The information is being collected in consultation with the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting.

International Catalogue of Music Films

At the instance of Unesco, the International Music Council, Paris, has undertaken a project for the preparation of a Catalogue which will give up to date information in respect of films related to music education prepared in various countries. The main object of this project is to promote education through films. The Council has sought information concerning the titles of selected films for screening by the Board to be set up by the Council in collaboration with Unesco. The information is being collected in consultation with the authorities concerned.

Unesco Travel Grants

Under the Major Project on the Mutual Appreciation of Eastern and Western Cultural Values, Unesco proposes to award during

1960 Educational Leader Grants and Regional Cultural Grants to a number of scholars from the U.K., Austria, Denmark, Argentina, Sweden and Japan. Their schedules include visits to India and necessary arrangements are being made for their placement.

Unesco Fellowship

Under Participation/Technical Programme, Unesco has awarded fellowships to the nationals of Japan, Indonesia and Burma for study and research work in selected fields. These awards envisage visits to a number of countries, including India. Unesco's request for their placement at appropriate institutions etc. is receiving attention.

SCHOLARSHIPS

FOR STUDIES ABROAD

I. Government of India Schemes

Partial Financial Assistance (Loans) Scheme

Applications for partial financial assistance from 18 students were received. Loans amounting to Rs. 4,113.13 have been sanctioned. Rs. 1,931.66 have been recovered from students who were given loans in the past.

Programme for Exchange of Scholars between India and Rumania, 1960-61.

Selections for two scholarships are being finalised.

Union Territories Overseas Scholarship, 1960-61.

Selection for one scholarship is being finalised.

II. Awards made by Foreign Governments/ International Organisations/Institutions.

Austrian Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of ten scholarships (to be awarded on a world wide competition) is under consideration.

British Council Scholarships, 1960-61

Selections for ten scholarships are being finalised.

Canadian Council Fellowships, 1960-61

Selections are being finalised.

Danish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Selections for two scholarships are in progress.

French Government Scholarships, 1960-61

Applications for nine scholarships have been invited by 15-5-1960.

Imperial Relations Trust (London University, Institute of Education) Fellowships, 1960-61.

Applications for two Fellowships have been received and are under consideration.

Israeli Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer is under consideration.

United Arab Republic Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of two scholarships is under consideration.

U.N. Social Welfare Fellowships/Scholarships Programme, 1960-61.

Selections for five Fellowships are in progress.

Unesco Fellowship for Study of Journalism, 1960-61.

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

Unesco Fellowship for Production of Reading Material for Neo-Literates, 1960-61.

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

Swedish Government Scholarships, 1960-61

The offer of two scholarships is under consideration.

Spanish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

Turkish Government Scholarship, 1960-61

The offer of one scholarship is under consideration.

FOR STUDIES IN INDIA

For Foreign Nationals

Government of India Schemes

General Scholarships Scheme, 1960-61

Twelve more candidates have been selected bringing the total to 118; selections for the remaining 22 scholarships have yet to be made.

Scholarships to Bhutanese Students, 1960-61

(i) The ten Bhutanese students who have been awarded scholarships for 'School Study' have joined their institutions.

(ii) Recommendations for six scholarships for Degree/Diploma courses are awaited from the Sikkimese Government.

Scholarships/Fellowships unoffered by Unesco

Arrangements for study tour/observation programmes for a national each from Belgium, Argentine, New Zealand, Switzerland, Norway and Japan are being made.

For Indian Nationals

Post-Matric Merit Scholarships Scheme, 1959-60.

Candidates for the remaining three scholarships have been selected bringing the total to 200.

Scholarships for Higher Studies in Hindi for Students from non-Hindi Speaking States, 1959-60.

Candidates for the remaining 43 scholarships have been selected bringing the total to 110.

EDUCATIONAL INFORMATION AND PUBLICATIONS

During the quarter ending 30th April, 1960, 2,661 receipts including 1,826 enquiries on facilities available in fields of Education in India and Abroad were dealt with. 412 persons visited the Section for various informative notes and reference to the Catalogues/Calendars on the Universities/Institutions of India and abroad in the Information Library. Necessary information and guidance was given to them.

Information on 11 items on different subjects of educational interest was collected/and compiled during the period under review.

2,799 press-cuttings received from the Press Information Bureau were circulated to the various Divisions/Officers of the Ministry.

Publications

The following publications have been brought out during the period under Report :

1. Summary of Activities: Ministry of Education 1959-60 (English).
2. Summary of Activities: Ministry of Education 1959-60 (Hindi).
3. Annual Report of the Ministry of Education 1959-60 (English).
4. Annual Report of the Ministry of Education 1959-60 (Hindi).
5. Report of the National Service Committee 1959-60.
6. Report of the Second National Seminar on Basic Education (Hindi).
7. National Awards for Teachers 1959-60 : Citations.
8. Youth—Spring 1960 issue.
9. An Appraisal of Rural Higher Education and a Projected Programme for the Rural Institute by J.D. Dawson.
10. Gandhiji's Experiments in Education by T.S. Avinishilingam.
11. The Education Quarterly—Spring 1960 issue.

1,261 copies of publications were sold at the casual sales depot of the Ministry during the period under report.

Educational Statistics

During the quarter under report, the statistics of nine States and seven Universities were scrutinised and discrepancies pointed out wherever necessary. Besides, the statistics of five Centrally Administered Areas were checked.

In pursuance of the policy of improving the professional competence of the staff charged with the collection and compilation of educational statistics in the States and Universities and to ensure a regular and timely flow of the data from these sources to the centre, officials were deputed to regional training courses organised at Gauhati, Patna and Mysore by the Governments of Assam and Bihar and the University of Mysore respectively. The course at Gauhati was attended by officials from N.E.F.A., Manipur, Tripura and N.H.T.A. also.

Besides, the section organised the tenth In-Service Training Course in Statistics at New Delhi from 4th April to 29th April,

1960. 13 trainees from ten universities participated in the course.

The Section has undertaken a survey for working out the cost to a student for pursuing the first degree course in some selected subjects of general and professional education. Necessary questionnaire was prepared and issued to more than 600 institutions.

During the period, "Report on Delinquent Children and Juvenile Offenders, 1955" and "Education in Universities in India, 1956-57", were brought out.

52 statistical enquiries were attended to during the quarter.

NATIONAL ARCHIVES OF INDIA

Acquisition

48 authenticated copies of Bills of States assented to by the President, one volume of records, 850 files and 124 reels of micro-film were received. 182 books, manuscripts and documents were accessioned and 2,060 periodicals etc. registered.

Repairs and Rehabilitation

Eight volumes of the book entitled "the History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" were bound and the repairs and binding of a Persian manuscript on Ladakh and repairs of 95 letters of Gandhiji were carried out.

Technical Service and Advisory Work

Photo-duplication service was rendered, among others, to the Italian Embassy, the Gandhi Smarak Nidhi, the office of the Surveyor General, the International Academy of Indian Culture, the New York Public Library, the Indian School for International Studies, the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Andaman, Nicobar Islands, and Shri Ajmal Khan.

Information on preservation and rehabilitation of records, free service in the National Archives of India for repair and preservation of ancient manuscripts of national importance, book-binding technique in the Mughal period, fumigation of records, protection of library-books from silver-fish and specifications of thymol fumigation chamber was supplied to different individuals and offices.

Photo Duplication

The microfilming of the series "Home Revenue Proceedings" was continued and 50,475 exposures were made. The microfilming of rare and precious manuscripts from the Raza Library, Rampur, was also continued. Besides 7,233 enlarged prints were prepared and 93 reels of microfilm checked.

Publications

Progress was made in printing volumes IV, VI and XV of the Fort-William-India House Correspondence, Part I of the volume on "Selections from Educational Records" Volume XI of *the Indian Archives,* the Annual Report of the National Archives of India for the year 1958 and the descriptive list of the Mutiny papers, editing the text of volume XIV of the Fort-William—India House Correspondence and revising the typescript of volume XI (1794-95) calendaring volume XII (1796-97) of the Calendar of Persian Correspondence. The brochure entitled "Indian Seals" was printed off. 50 printed copies of Volume IX of the Fort-William—India House Correspondence and 100 printed copies of the volume on Browne Correspondence were received from the press. The compilation of the Annual Report of the National Archives of India for the year 1959 was completed while that of the Handbook of Indian Archival Repositories was taken up. Preparation of an index to the Foreign and Political Departments's records (1781—83) was continued. The printing of the "Bulletin of Research Theses and Dissertations" was started.

Indian Historical Records Commission

Part II of volume XXXV of the proceedings of the Indian Historical Records Commission was printed and distributed to the members of the Commission.

The thirty-fifth session of the Indian Historical Records Commission was held at Vigyan Bhavan, New Delhi. on the 4th-5th February, 1960.

The Director of Archives inspected the records of the Accountant General, Rajasthan, Jaipur, and visited the Bombay, Santiniketan, Calcutta and Aligarh Universities in connection with the meetings of the Manuscript Committee of the University Grants Commission.

Three Views on Indiscipline

A SYMPOSIUM

Indiscipline has currently become an oft-discussed theme in the consideration of the educational situation in the country. One hopes that this subject would soon cease to be an item on the agenda. In what follows, a Director of Studies of a university, a Principal of a school, both with years of contact with the student community to their credit, and a student of Delhi, give their views on the unrest prevailing in the student-world. They lay bare the facts of the situation, uncover some of the causes and suggest possible remedies. T.K.N. Menon stresses the importance of counselling bodies in universities to give intelligent guidance to our students, particularly in the use of their time outside the class room. M.M. Khan gives an account of the day-to-day life of an average student while N.K. Jha makes the point that a leaf could be taken out of the book of those educational institutions where there is no indiscipline. The contributions have been written with sympathy and understanding and should be of interest to our teachers and students. A house of learning, school or college or university should have an **ethose** *of its own to win the voluntary love and reverence of all seekers of knowledge. It is only years of endeavour and combined endeavour at that, of teacher, student and society that will produce the needed atmosphere to which one of our contributors has referred.*

—EDITOR

I

THE ACADEMIC DISQUIET that prevails at present in our universities as a result of student indiscipline is a phenomenon that cannot escape the notice of even the casual observer of university life in India. Student strikes at the slightest of provocations, fall in standards of students' achievement, the absence of any norm for student conduct and behaviour and the easy susceptibility of students to be carried away by the false propaganda of political parties and even the anti-social elements in the country—all these are becoming common features of student life in our country. Teachers and educational administrators are very conscious of the power that the student world wields, and what is alarming is that many of them fight shy of decrying student conduct and behaviour which is below par because they are afraid of getting into trouble with this powerful body. When universities first got started in Europe during the Middle Ages, a number of them like the Universities of Bologna and Pressburg went under the control of students who appointed rectors and teachers and carried on university administration. If the rot that has set in our universities is not cleaned up without any further delay, the time will not be distant when our students will clamour for power to run the universities as their counterparts did in Europe during the Middle Ages.

Don't Blame the Student

We are used to blaming the student for all his indisciplined behaviour whether such behaviour is motivated by conscious or unconscious urges. In the final analysis we cannot deny that their behaviour is conditioned by a number of factors that are not their making. Student unrest is symptomatic of the world situation today. Look at the recent student upsurge in South Korea and Turkey and the similar phenomenon that happened in Egypt and Burma sometime earlier. The old values and the influence of the State, the family and religion got shattered as a consequence of the Second World War, and new values have not as yet got rooted in the soil. In our own country, students saw crumbling of authority when the mighty British Government vacated their rule in India and when a large number of Indian princes—all symbols of authority and power—had to leave their power and their position.

Have our universities reacted to the new situation that has arisen in our country and have they adjusted themselves to the needs of the times and of the students that they are admitting in increasing numbers year after year? Why is it that the frustrated constitute the major segment of the present-day students in our universities? Why should the best among the nation's youth who are supposed to enter the portals of institutions of higher learning be frustrated ?

T. K. N. MENON, *B.A.* (*Hons.*), *Dip. Edn.* (*Leeds and Berlin*), *M.A. Edn.* (*Leeds*), Director of Studies, M.S. University of Baroda, Baroda

Why should youth in general be frustrated because, as the poet sings,

"How beautiful is youth, how bright it shines,

With its illusions, aspirations, dreams !"

The main causes of the frustration of our youth who inhabit our universities are : (1) Indiscriminate admissions, (2) inadequate education after admission and (3) an antiquated, inadequate and unreliable examination at the end of university education. These three factors demand scrutiny in the context of not only our present-day national life and its requirements but also modern educational theory and practice.

Indiscriminate Admission

The indiscriminate admission of students made by universities and colleges without any regard to their capacity to profit by advanced courses of studies is a problem that raises the fundamental issue *viz.* what should be the role of our universities ? Dr. C. D. Deshmukh, Chairman of our University Grants Commission raised this issue in his inaugural address to a Conference of Educational Administrators held in Delhi in 1957. At one extreme end were those who believed that the function of the university was the training of the "elite by an elite"; at the other end were those who believed that universities should serve all people who could benefit from some kind of higher education. The United States of America represents the latter point of view, and most of the European countries, the former. At one end of the scale is the U.S.A. where per million of population, the number of young persons at the University is over 15,000 and at the other end is the U.K. where the corresponding number is approximately 2,000. It is alarming that in spite of our poor resources, distressing illiteracy, India is also sending 2,000 students to her universities for every million of her population. A recent study sponsored by the writer in the Baroda University has revealed that candidates who secured less than 50% marks at the S.S.C. Examination and joined science or technological courses in the university have not been able to complete the courses successfully. Why then should such misguided youth be admitted to these courses because frustration is their inevitable reward in the end ? If universities want to educate only those who have the intellectual capacity and scholastic achievements to succeed in their studies and if they want to give their students the best motivation that comes from guaranteed employment and not an uncertain future, they will be well advised to follow the counsel of Dr. Deshmukh who at the Conference of University Administrators said : "Having regard to the fact that we shall be endeavouring to strain to the utmost limit our total resources in an all-out effort to develop the national economy and that there will be no slacks left or decorative fringes or border embroideries, I have no doubt myself that we shall have to restrict university education by and large to the university educated men and women that the country will be needing from time to time and that as regards the rest, the nation will have done its duty by expanding and extending as well as diversifying secondary education, especially of a technical character". Since our national economy will not permit us to provide a variety of courses to suit all kinds of talents and even low levels of talents as is done by the universities in the U.S.A., the best we can aspire to in the foreseeable future is to provide university education for only the gifted who are able to go successfully through the comparatively fewer courses of study that we are able to provide. Such a policy alone can prevent the frustration that becomes the lot of a large number of students because of their inability to cope up with their studies.

Defective Instruction and Examinations

Restricted admission and right admission of students by themselves will not lift the academic disquiet and student indiscipline that have come to stay in our universities. Admission of students is only the first step in the long journey of university education which spreads out in instruction and studies and culminates at the final examination. If wrong admissions sow the seeds of student unrest and indiscipline, the limitations of our programme of instruction and studies, and the wastage inherent in our examination system cause this disturbance and disquiet to grow and assume alarming proportions.

Before considering the problem of university programmes of instruction and studies, let us look at the problem of university examinations. The Indian University Education Commission were convinced that if they had to suggest *one single reform* in Indian university education, it should be that of examinations. The colossal wastage, the frustration, the anti-social attitude caused through failures at our public examinations were stressed by the late Dr. J. C. Ghosh in his address at a symposium organised in connection with the Calcutta University Centenary Celebrations in 1957. Dr. Ghosh said : "I wish to draw your pointed attention to the colossal waste of time and money inherent in a system (of education) dominated more by external examinations than by good teaching. More than 50% of our students fail at each of these examinations. It is estimated that out of ten lakhs who are appearing at the matriculation examination this year, five lakhs will fail and four lakhs will appear at the Intermediate examination two years hence; two lakhs will again fail there and possibly one lakh will finally come out successful at the degree levels.

The frustration, the financial loss, the anti-social attitude which such failures create are taken as a matter of course. Such is the benumbing influence of an evil system which has degenerated into a mechanical contrivance for testing short-lived memory."

The main defects of our examination system are well-known. First of all, the examination uses only the essay type of questions which suffer from a high degree of subjectivity. Secondly a student's educational progress and scholastic achievement are judged only through the marks that he gets at the final examination. His progress as revealed by the day-to-day work is ignored. And thirdly we are adopting a system of awarding numerical marks which has the absurd assumption that the mind is so sensitive as to be able to mark on a 100-point scale, and what is worse that the minds of a number of examiners have the same capacity to mark in a standardised pattern on this 100-point scale. It is remarkable that the few universities in India which are working on a progressive programme of examination reform to. mitigate some of the above defects are experiencing less of student unrest and indiscipline. The University Grants Commission has taken on hand the problem of examination reform with the help of an expert committee. The Commission and its expert committee had also the advantage of advice from the well-known examination expert, Dr. Benjamin Bloom of the University of Chicago whose approach to the problem of examination reform provides a meaning and purpose to university instruction which are today denied to university students. Dr. Bloom's thesis is that we should first make clear the objectives of teaching a subject and establish the priorities of these objectives. The second step is to provide learning situations to achieve the objectives in the order of their importance and the last phase of this continuous educational process should be the examination which should have the definite purpose of finding out how far the objectives have been realised. This approach to examination reform will give meaning to the instruction imparted by the teacher and the learning that is expected of the student. It is the lack of purpose and meaning of university instruction that leaves the student without pilot or rudder and makes him resort to unwholesome activities to satisfy his urge for importance that his studies do not at present provide.

From the above it will be clear that besides an unreliable and uncertain examination, the inadequate instruction in our universities is another major cause of student unrest and indiscipline. In the name of specialization, university courses have gone in for fragmentation of knowledge. However strong the claims of specialization, our young men and women have to be educated for life and the needs of the present-day crisis of modern culture makes the integrated approach to instruction imperative. The various subjects taught in the university have to be presented in an integrated and liberal way so that the student may be able to appreciate intelligently his role in the modern world, a world which is not only physical, but also social and cultural, a world of facts as well as values. The need of this general education approach to undergraduate courses of studies to meet the needs of the times has not been sufficiently

appreciated by our universities. This is not all. The institutions of higher learning and student enrolment have increased beyond limits in recent times, and the quality of accommodation, equipment, staffing, halls of residence and centres for recreation and reading have not kept pace with this expansion. The starting of colleges and sometimes universities to satisfy regional rivalries and parochial passions has added to the malady. Though the present work that the University Grants Commission is doing to maintain proper standards of staff, accommodation, equipment and other facilities is substantial, the problem that faces them on this front is colossal.

Guidance and Counselling

To the prescription of control of admissions and improvement of instruction and examinations must be added another indispensable item which will go a long way in getting rid of the ugly phenomenon of student unrest and indiscipline in India. There is the urgent need of setting up a proper and dynamic organisation for advising, guiding and counselling of students in all our institutions of higher learning. Universities have given little thought to the psychological factors that influence the adjustment or maladjustment of adolescents who constitute our student population. This most difficult stage of development described by the psychologist as the age of "storm and stress", "moods and mysteries" and "problems and perplexities" have serious difficulties of emotional, educatioanl, occupational and social adjustments. Universities should set up students' counselling centres with specialists to advise, guide and counsel. The values of such centres are many; perhaps an illustration may bring out one of their many phases of work. Dr. Benjamin Bloom's recent study of our examination system made in the context of his advice to the University Grants Commission revealed that for every three hours of study that a student in the U.S.A. or the U.K. has to do outside the classroom, his Indian counterpart does only just an hour's study. This shows that time is hanging on our students without anyone to advise them as to what they should do, and if they make a nuisance of themselves, it is but inevitable. What they need is expert and constant advice on all their problems—educational, emotional, occupational and social. Such advice is provided by the Student Counselling Services in the universities abroad, particularly in those in the U.S.A. These agencies advise students on their problems of admission, choice of courses of studies; they guide them in their occupational choice, in going through courses and training for vocations and professions, in analysing of abilities, interests and attitudes required for various vocations and professions; they also counsel students on their personal and personality problems. Thus the students come to have a better understanding of themselves, their abilities, their interests, their problems and their values, they are helped to define goals and work their way to achieve these goals. Adolescent energy is like the overflow of a mighty river, it irrigates and fertilises life's vast territories. The whole problem of university education is to long circuit this energy to useful channels. Only a competent students' Counselling Service working in close co-operation with university administration and teaching staff can do this.

The important phenomenon of student unrest and indiscipline in Indian universities may be due to a number of causes, but it will be clear from the foregoing analysis that the main cause of this malady lies primarily with university teachers and university administration. It is time that they realised along with Shakespeare's Cassius that "the fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars but in ourselves". Therefore the cure lies primarily with them. First and foremost, admissions to universities should be restricted to those who have the mental calibre and scholastic achievement to cope with the courses of studies. Secondly our examinations should be reformed and integrated intimately into the total educational process. The educational process itself should be improved with better staff, accommodation, equipment and other educational facilities. And lastly the student should be advised, guided and counselled by a competent expert agency on his curricular, personal and occupational problems. From the look of things the present social order is not in a mood to set up norms for the proper conduct and behaviour of individuals;

we may be justified more in looking forward to our universities to turn out well-adjusted young men and women who in course of time will improve the social order and set it on proper norms. Indiscipline among university students, the cream of our youth, the nation's priceless treasure will then be a story of the past.

II

WHY IS THE STUDENT COMMUNITY dissatisfied with its lot ? Why is an average Indian youth frustrated today ? Why are demonstrations of student unrest more apparent these days than ever before ? These are some of the pertinent questions which face every student, every teacher and every parent today.

It is not only in the Indian Universities that the problem of student indiscipline has assumed serious proportions. Recent events in other countries like Turkey, South Korea and Japan have also shown a dangerous growth of this tendency. There have been attempts before towards curbing this malaise among our youth. But as the poet says :

مرض بڑھتا گیا جوں جوں دوا کی

"the malady went on increasing with every remedy". As the younger generation of today is the architect of future India, it is time that our leaders and educationists gave a serious thought to the problem and found out a remedy before the disease becomes incurable.

The causes of student indiscipline are many and the approaches to this problem also are many-sided. In this article an attempt has been made to look at the problem from a student's point of view. As only a wearer knows where the shoe pinches him, and as only a patient knows where the body actually aches, so also a student is in a better position to say why he is indisciplined.

Life of An Average Student

What is the life of an average Indian student today ? His parents are not so well-educated as they want him to be. He is admitted to a Municipal Primary School and gets entry into a Secondary School as a matter of course. The choice of school is determined mostly by its proximity to his home and the selection of subjects depends on what the school has to offer to him. With some difficulty he is able to get through his High or Higher Secondary Examination. Then the real difficulty starts. He has to join a college. There is a great rush on admissions. He only has a second division. Much as he wants to go in for technical education, admission to an engineering or medical college is out of the question. Either he belongs to poor parents who cannot afford these costly studies, or he offered arts subjects in the Secondary School and therefore cannot be accepted into technical streams. Or, even if his parents are well-to-do and planned a technical course for him, he abhors being an engineer or a doctor. He has an inclination towards art or music. At last he is admitted to the degree class only to find himself a square peg in a round hole. He goes to his classes just to complete his attendance. There also an arrangement exists between him and a friend whereby if any one of them reaches the classroom, *both* would be *present*. What does he do during the college time when he is proxied by his friend? Perhaps he is enjoying a foreign movie running in the town at reduced rates in the noon shows. Or he may be gossiping in a costly restaurant over a cup of coffee.

The college time is over and now he has to return home. The atmosphere at home is not conducive to study. He goes out again but does not know what to do. He plays no game. The evening is therefore passed in the house of a friend whose father is about to contest a municipal election. His friend promises him free food and lodging till the date of the election. The

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father is an influential fellow. If he is returned in the election, he would not only manage to have our student sent through but also get him through the examination.

The election is over but not the examination. Fortunately the attendance is *complete*. But will he get through the examination ? He missed quite a few lectures. Of those which he attended, he followed very few. But then, let the examination be over. Some preparations for success can be made afterwards also! After all half of the examiners are internal. As to the external papers, well, there are other means also! The examination has to be got through by hook or by crook, by persuation or by intimidation, by hard work or by hard word.

At last the examination is finished. Every thing went through smoothly except in one paper which was rather hard and where a walk-out had to be resorted to. In fact the paper was not so hard, but the teacher used to give attendance instead of lectures on the subject. A general strike therefore became necessary to have a re-examination in that paper.

After the Examination

The result is out. Everybody is happy that our friend has got a second division. The parents are happy that their investment has not been a waste. Congratulations are pouring in; parties are being thrown. Now the boy should earn something. He looks at the "Wanted" column in the newspaper daily. He is either not qualified for the posts that he wants, or does not want the posts for which he thinks he is qualified. Ultimately he decides to appear in the examination for All-India services. He works very hard for the competition but unfortunately he is not even called for the interview. He takes a second chance, works harder and with greater determination. The interview call comes but not the appointment letter. He is disappointed. "Am I so useless and unwanted"? he thinks. Someone advises him to apply for lower posts. But he is 25 by now and would not be accepted by Government even for a clerical job. He begins to feel that he is a burden on his parents, on his society, on everything around him. He wants to get married and settle down independently. He therefore comes down to the level of "any post anywhere", goes in search of a job from person to person, office to office and factory to factory. But no one would accept "a raw hand" that he is.

He wonders, of what use his education has been and what kind of economic prosperity his country is planning for. He develops disgust against society, his Government and his country. He joins undesirable political parties or becomes a tool in the hands of anti-social elements. Cheating, abusing, stealing, etc., become his hobbies, and all his energy and intelligence are channelised towards these. Having developed these forms of indiscipline in his college days, he could have been given a chance to shake them off. But society is not kind to him and now he becomes indiscipline personified.

This in short is the life-sketch of an average Indian youth. There are, of course, exceptions to our story for better or for worse. If there are instances of murders by students, there is a blind student also who has recently topped the list of the successful candidates in M.A. (Philosophy) Examination of a university. If there are principals who have beaten the teachers of their college on grounds of party-politics, there are principals who have laid down their lives for the maintenance of their integrity and academic standards.

Tripartite Cooperation

The general picture, however, is very bleak. It is for our educationists and leaders to find out ways to improve the situation. As the problem has many facets, a sort of tripartite cooperation among the parent, the teacher and the Government is necessary for a proper solution of this ugly problem. The parent has to seek the necessary educational and vocational guidance for the child in addition to his duty to develop the child into the right kind of adult. The teacher has to teach honestly and has to be free from all politics. The college has to be not only a temple of learning but has also to provide facilities for extra-curricular activities. It is the duty of a National Government to assist the institutions, parents and teachers to make of the Indian student an evolved, cultivated person, who would be an asset to the country.

III

INDISCIPLINE AMONG STUDENTS has of late become almost an epidemic. The problem of student indiscipline in the country has at the present moment assumed such gigantic proportions that it has become a matter of national concern. Time has come for all sensible men to put their heads together and find out a way of combating the prevailing malady.

Specimens of Indiscipline

The acts of indiscipline, as exhibited by students may be classified into two categories:—

(A) Individual.

(B) Group.

Examples of individual indiscipline are late coming, truancy, scribbling, spitting indiscriminately and throwing rubbers on road, jay-walking, lying, cheating, stealing, abusing and beating fellow-students, chewing of betel leaves and smoking and using unfair means in the examination. Group Indiscipline may consist of noisy behaviour in classroom, disorderly dispersal at the end of school hours, destruction of school properties, violation of the rules of hostel during study hours, gang-behaviour, fights, and quarrels, rowdyism in the play-ground, within the circus campus, at the cinema gate and at public meetings, organised help to examinees at public examination through loud speakers, ticketless travelling and assaulting of ticket checkers, bus conductors and bus drivers, molesting invigilators during examination and resorting to strikes when their demands are not met, etc.

Causes of Indiscipline

This atmosphere of indiscipline among our students is but a reflection of adult indiscipline in the other spheres of our national life. A school or a college is a small community within a larger one and the attitudes, values, modes of behaviour, diffidance and frustrations that are prevalent in the outer and larger life of the nation are bound to be reflected in these institutions too. So indiscipline among students is largely due to basic defects in the community itself.

The misuse and exploitation of students by political parties for their own interest is another reason for the prevalent student unrest.

Further the fall in the standard of discipline has been to a great extent due to the poor quality of teachers who have adopted the teaching profession much against their wishes, for lack of anything better to do. Present day teachers find it very difficult to exercise any influence on their students because most of the teachers have no interest in their work or the aptitude to teach, or sympathy with the pupils in their charge. That there are noble exceptions does not make any material difference to the situation. Experience shows that a teacher who is inspired and can communicate the joy of knowledge to the taught cannot fail to win the esteem of the student community.

But even able men in the teaching profession are up against the abnormal rise in the number of students in teaching institutions. Besides, majority of students come from culturally, economically, intellectually and socially backward families living in uncongenial environments. Then, there is the outmoded examination system and so on.

Remedial Measures

In effectively tackling the problem of student indiscipline, four agencies can help—the community, parents, administrative authorities of educational institutions and finally the teachers. Whatever scheme is adopted to weld the student community into a disciplined unit of our national life, it should have the closest integration between these four agencies. Between the school and the community there should be two way traffic marked by mutual understanding and cooperation. The heads of institutions and other administrative authorities vested with the responsibility of running schools and colleges should be firm in dealing with cases

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of gross indiscipline. Any weakness in this respect will be only an encouragement to student to flout law and order. It is true that a good deal of sympathy is required in dealing with young students with their generous enthusiasms, but this should not mean that anti-social behaviour or law breaking should be condoned.

The key person on whom falls the major responsibility for the growth and development of our students is the teacher who is in day-to-day contact with them. As is the teacher, so is the student.[6] Not only should the teachers themselves follow a high standard of conduct but also they should *seem* to do so for, students constantly watch them. After all whether it is a matter of training a student or training one's own young children, the effective weapon is not so much preaching or laying down the law but *example* which exercises a subtle influence.

If would help considerably if more serious attention were given to provision of games, entertainment, etc., within the campus of colleges and universities.

Schemes to develop the aesthetic sense of pupils should be introduced and the encouragement should be given to them to express their talents in art, drama, music etc.

The most important thing in an educational institution is atmosphere. Many of the famous educational institutions both here and abroad derive their reputation from the atmosphere prevailing in them. This is a very subtle thing which is produced by the collective effort of teacher and taught through a number of years. There are institutions in India where student indiscipline is un known, a point which sometimes, escapes us. It would be worthwhile, if, for a change, we found out the reasons for the absence of indiscipline in such institutions. We would then be getting nearer a solution of the problem. Our colleges and universities should produce in our students a feeling of belonging. As the Education Minister stated recently "the problem of discipline is a human problem and it can be solved only in a human way."

Santiniketan

Santiniketan was founded by Gurudev Rabindra Nath Tagore in 1901. It had a small beginning with hardly four or five students on its role. Now the institution has developed into a university called Viswa Bharati. The meaning of Viswa Bharati is "Where the world meets" and Santiniketan means "Abode of Peace".

The poet wanted to establish an institution where pupils from various parts of the world would come and study eastern culture. Besides, he wanted to keep it aloof and apart from the city atmosphere. We have our classes under the trees because Gurudev did not like to imprison the young learners within the four-walls of a classroom. By having classes in the open air, we are in close contact with nature. The seasonal festivals are part and parcel of the life at Santiniketan. For instance, in spring we observe "Vasanta Utsava" in monsoon "Varsha Mangla" and so on.

We have got classes in the morning for four hours and in the afternoon for two hours. We have facilities to learn various foreign languages such as German, French, Chinese, Russian, Tibetan etc. We meet foreigners in the course of our studies.

(*Continued at page* 158)

Strengthening Science Education in India

WE LIVE IN A SCIENTIFIC AGE and the progress of our society—both economic and cultural—depends on Science. Whether we like it or not we are in the midst of a technological civilization founded upon science—the civilization that will rise or fall as science education prospers or fails. This advancement of technology has to be supported by a continuous stream of new scientific knowledge, for which there must be a continued supply of competent scientists. The blunt truth therefore is, that we must have more scientists and engineers and more people who understand what science is about. It is only thus, that we can keep up in the race with the more advanced countries of the world and also help to raise the living standards of our people.

High Priority to Science

This is the argument in favour of necessity and simply states the case for more of one sort of education and less of another. In other words, it assigns higher priority to the teaching of science in schools. Public opinion must face the fact that in the march for progress, old philosophies and social structures which fail to adapt themselves to the changing times will be out-moded and with them the countries and the civilisation they represent. Adaptation is necessary not only for survival but also to retain cultures which might otherwise disappear in the wake of conservatism. An individual to be called a modern man signifies something more than the mere fact that he happened to be born at a date "that left him no alternative but to live out his years in the vicinity of the 20th century". Rather, to be called a modern man in a full and meaningful sense implies that a person has felt in the depths of his being the impact of the basic and characteristic problems of the modern age—an age of science and technology.

No country can claim to have a perfect educational system. In some ways, Russian and American educationists are both more acutely dissatisfied with their own than we are, otherwise they would not have made such major changes in the pattern of their school curriculum in recent years. From the point of view of educational strategy, the Russians seem to have judged the situation more sensibly and exhibited deeper insight into the scientific revolution.

The need for shaping and re-shaping the national scientific policy in U.S.A. was reflected in the Report of the President's Science Advisory Committee on "Strengthening American Science". While releasing this report towards the end of 1958, President Eisenhower stated "In calling particular attention to the conclusion of the Science Advisory Committee that the task of further strengthening U.S. Science is so broad that the Government, the Industry, the Universities, the Foundations and the individuals all have an essential role to play. The future growth and strength of the American Science will depend upon the efforts of all these parts of our national community if we were to rise to the demands of our times".

If the urgency is so acute in the case of a leading country in the world, one can imagine the importance of constant vigil on the part of the less advanced though, ambitious nations who wish to make up the leeway in their progress as rapidly as possible. While introducing reforms in Science Education in our country, it should be worthwhile to take note of the experiments which the Western industrialised States have already tried, without giving the impression that we are borrowing ideas wholesale and accepting conclusions without careful scrutiny in the light of our own experience. We must remember that anthropological research indicates that "institutions cannot be transferred wholesale from one society to other".

One of the dailies of New Delhi while commenting on the question of the appointment of a Science Commission stated the problem of education reform thus:—"So far as the scientific education beyond the school level is concerned, the University Grants Commission has already begun a series of inquiries. It has appointed Review Committees with very wide terms of

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reference", and so far as school education is concerned "the facilities for the teaching of science subjects are shockingly poor..... As to teaching standards, the authorities concerned know only too well that they are deplorably low. The methods of teaching used in our schools are unimaginative, that in the majority of cases a student's interest in studies is swiftly and permanently killed. Things are learnt by rote with the sole purpose of passing examinations—examinations which mainly test the student's memory but which almost never test his ability to think for himself and analyse a given set of data. The known defects suggest their own remedies. The School need to be better equipped and not only in terms of laboratories. The teaching staff has to be strengthened both in numbers and in quality. The examination system needs to be drastically altered so that it ceases to kill the will to learn".

The items which need immediate and serious attention of the reformer are :—

1. *Revision of the science curriculum* including improvements in the mode of instruction and the way in which Science Education is imparted.
2. *Increasing physical facilities* in the form of laboratory space, scientific equipment and library books etc.
3. *The availability of quality teachers* and the means by which personnel in teaching profession can keep close contact with the newer developments in their subjects.
4. *Attracting suitable students* with aptitude and ability for taking up a scientific career or in other words hunt for science talent.

Curricular Reform

Science is developing so fast at present that there should be a permanent body or a Research Institute constantly reviewing the syllabi, preparing new material as educational aids, revising textbooks and devising new, cheap and economical equipment for laboratory experiments. Such an institute should carry a relentless battle against complacency and conduct research striving for further improvement in every sphere of school science education. It is a matter of great satisfaction that the Government of India has under contemplation the establishment of such an institution during the Third Five-Year Plan.

Since the early years of the 20th century, the natural sciences have undergone two distinct and consequential changes. First the sciences themselves have grown enormously, both in techniques and quality. Next, science has become inter-woven with our daily life. A man whether he is aware of it or not, lives out his life in constant association with the methods of scientific research and the consequences of scientific research. Scientists and educators are aware that this altered state of affairs is inadequately represented in secondary education and as a consequence, in higher education. There have been several piecemeal re-constructions in the structure of science education in the past but these have failed to achieve their purpose. A new structure now is necessary and it must be designed from the ground up.

The syllabus in Physics for example, is built around Newtonian mechanics, which had ruled physics for more than two centuries. In the years that have passed, physics has spread its roots much wider and borne unimaginable results. The Quantum theory and relativity were postulated and developed, wave mechanics came into being and recreated the physicists basic outlook, attention shifted from the particle to the atom, then to the nucleus and now to the sub-nucleus. Newtonian mechanics lost none of its significance but its status was changed and it no longer represented the manner in which the physicist regarded his universe. Appreciating factors such as the above, the Physical Science Sub-committee (PSSC) was organised in U. S. A. in December, 1956 under a grant from the National Science Foundation to seek ways of giving expression to this new outlook in the high school curriculum in physics. This Committee has been at work at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology for the last 3-1/2 years and has enlisted the cooperation of over hundred full-time scientists and educators of which about 40 have come from colleges, universities and industrial laboratories and about the same number from secondary schools in all parts of the country and the rest from the various communication industries—film, television, and

the Press. The committee has received liberal financial assistance, running into millions of dollars, and is likely to finish its task by the end of this year. The specific aim of the PSSC includes the following :—

(*i*) To plan a course of study in which major developments of physics, up to the present time, are presented in a logical and integrated whole;

(*ii*) to present physics as an intellectual and cultural pursuit which is part of present day human activity;

(*iii*) to assist Physics teachers by means of various teaching aids to carry out the proposed programmes.

As a result of its labours, this committee has prepared new textbooks, help-readers, film strips and set up a large exhibition of simple, economical and highly educative equipment covering a wide range of experiments included in the new syllabus. If America could afford several million dollars and the services of a hundred full-time scientists in an effort to improve the materials of study in physics for the age group of 16 to 18 only, cannot we, in India, even with our poor resources spend a modest sum to run a full time Institute to remodel our curriculum in all sciences ? It is only by means of such continuous endeavour that we can hope to make up the leeway in the progress of science education in schools.

Need for a New Approach

Another aspect of the problem which needs our special attention is our general *approach* to the teaching of science at the secondary level. So far it has been in the classical British tradition where the emphasis is on acquiring an elementary knowledge of science through the study of physics and chemistry. In America and Russia the approach has been more biased in favour of application of science to industry and human well-being. This difference in outlook is seen in the bias towards skill in the science curriculum in the U.S.A. and U.S.S.R. as compared to the factual and abstract approach in our country. We have so far appreciated to a lesser extent the increasing value of science as a trainer in skill and an appropriate vehicle for spreading the scientific spirit and teaching scientific method and scientific approach in solving life's problems.

One of the reasons for a change in the present methods of teaching of sciences lies in the fact that science itself has changed. It is, by now a commonplace, that most bodies of scientific knowledge are but a "temporary codex". Even doctrines of long standing are dispensed with when they are no longer entirely useful. The wave theory of light first put forth in 1665 successfully assimilated the data brought to it in the two centuries which followed it, but the discovery of the scattering of X-rays in the first quarter of the 20th century led to the reorganisation of the wave theory, root and branch. The cliche, that science is cumulative does not mean that one fact is added to another while the pile grows larger, but, rather, that as the growth of knowledge necessitates change of principles, "the knowledge content in older formulations is replaced by knowledge more comprehensive, more discriminating and more nearly exhaustive". This confers on the scientific enterprise a character alien to that conceived in the 19th century. The latter was naively literal. Science was supposed to study a permanent, inflexible given world and to seek and find unalterable truths. The method of instruction appropriate to such a view of science was, of course, clear and it consisted in mastering the true facts as shown by science. For such an education, the best possible material was of one kind only, that is, a clear and unequivocal presentation of the known. For neither doubt nor ambiguity characterised what was known. For imparting such an education, the suitable method was, first the conclusions were to be learned and remembered as given, then in the laboratory these were to be verified by experiments. For this purpose, precise and exact instructions told the students what to look at and what to look for. Then followed exercises inviting the applications of these truths. A dogmatic education then embodied an authoritative lecture and textbooks, inflexible laboratory instructions. This was the education appropriate to the 19th century view of science. It is, however, shockingly obvious that

even in the 20th century a majority of our schools, and with a few exceptions, even our universities, continue to convey scientific facts shorn of doubts and alternatives, and teach the "temporary codex" as if it were the eternal truth. Justifications put forth for this attitude are that the time allotted to a subject would permit a view of enquiry only at the expense of coverage and that the students would merely be confused by this discussion of doubts and alternatives. It is for the senior teachers in science to reflect on this attitude of mind and give an unambiguous guidance to junior teachers on this question.

What is needed, therefore, is a reorientation of the teaching of science to gear it to the scientific outlook. For this, science should be presented as inquiry and the students undertake inquiries as the root to the materials to be learned. In the laboratory the exercise, instead of limiting itself to exemplification of the laws of science and familiarization with apparatus and techniques, should be an occasion for the conduct of partial and miniature inquiries. Problems should be posed for which the student does not already know the right solution and goals should be set up which call for development by the student of plans of attack and patterns of experiment. In the lecture room also such materials and methods should be selected which exhibit instances and details of the course of inquiries. The teaching based on these principles may produce inquiring minds, who may in due course of time, become first rate scientists. The change, however, is taking place gradually. For example there is a tendency to eliminate a certain amount of historical data and to lay emphasis on the identification of fundamental decisions rather than to memorise facts. There is also a healthy tendency, at present, to eliminate excessive study of devices made possible by science *i.e.*, the product of technology.

Physical Facilities

As regards the physical facilities for the teaching of sciences, the science sub-committee of the All-India Council for Secondary Education, it is understood, is planning to prepare a standard list of scientific equipment for the guidance of school authorities. It is also arranging to prepare blue prints for standard laboratory accommodation suitable for school work. As the committee will have the advantage of architectural assistance as well, it is expected that the laboratory design both suitable for working, and economic in cost, will be produced, before long. The major obstacle, however, continues to be the inadequacy of scientific equipment and even when it is available, the high cost thereof. Several steps are being taken to solve this problem. Indigenous manufacture of scientific equipment, particularly useful for schools, is growing gradually, though so far it is unable to meet the expanding demand. A new Division under the name of Central Organization for Scientific Instruments has been set up by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research to implement the recommendations of the scientific instrument committee, the chief recommendation of which was to encourage manufacture of indigenous equipment. Advantage should also be taken of the book published under the auspices of the Unesco in which a detailed suggestion is given for setting up experiments from easily available and less costly material. This book was written specially to help rehabilitate the countries which had suffered damage during the last war. It is an excellent publication which should be in the hands of every science teacher.

Meeting Shortage of Personnel

The most difficult problem in the teaching of science in schools, however, is, to secure services of qualified teachers. No amount of laboratory equipment or other physical facilities would help to raise standards unless teachers of proper calibre become available. Increasing demand for highly educated manpower has resulted in the shortage of suitably trained teacher. It is common knowledge that intelligent pupils can be successfully taught only by properly qualified teachers but then everyone is also aware that there is a grave shortage of suitably qualified staff particularly in Mathematics and Sciences.

To develop a good system of education, it is necessary to attract better type of

candidates to the teaching profession by giving them better salary scales of pay and enhacing the prestige of the teaching profession. Unless the economic and social status of the school teacher is improved, it would be almost impossible to enrich the profession with people of higher intelligence and initiative. The selection of teachers particulaly in Mathematics requires special attention because it is here that the most acute shortage of competent teachers is being felt. In this subject in particular, there is a lot of uninspired and unsatisfactory teaching. To produce a large number of science teachers, it would be logical to strengthen science education at higher levels in the first instance. This requires time, planning and phasing out the programme of University education to meet the demand as it develops. This can only be done when we know exactly what the demand is. There is also a danger that urgencies such as the recent flurry about the shortage of teachers and engineers may hush us in producing "Journey men" engineers and "Pedestarian" teachers by bestowing certificates and diplomas after the so called "intensive" training for a few months time. Expansion at the cost of quality is no expansion. No make shift arrangement for the supply of teachers can meet the situation because so far as the quality goes, it may deteriorate the standards still further.

Equally important is the question of giving in-service training to teachers who are already in the profession so that they may maintain proper contact with the new developments in the field of their own subjects.

During recent years, the increasing tempo of scientific advancement has made the problem of remaining well-informed really critical indeed. For the heavily loaded science teacher, it has become merely impossible to have full acquaintence with the newer discoveries even in his own field of interest. To remedy this, Extention lectures, Seminars, Refresher courses should be arranged for the school teachers particularly during the vacation period. The University Grants Commission has started giving financial assistance to such Universities which arrange refresher courses of 6 to 8 weeks duration for the benefit of school teachers as well as for their own post-graudate students. The teachers, on their part, should be inspired by a spirit of dedication to their task.

Examination Reform

Much has already been said on the evils of the examination system. Intensive efforts are being directed to modify and improve upon the older methods, but it must be stressed that secondary education is the stage at which the pupils should be graded according to their aptitudes and abilities. Widespread concern currently prevails because of the evidence that gifted students have been largely overlooked in the Indian Secondary schools. This is perhaps the result of mass production in schools and also the traditional Indian sympathy for the unfortunate and the handicaped. Like other advanced countries, India should organise, science exhibitions and contests in search of science talent on State and national bases.

Finally it is essential that any educational pattern, to be useful, should be self-generating and should be easily changeable in conformity with new knowledge or changing social conditions. The world of fantastic opportunity awaits a brilliant scientist, but he must have the imagination and ability to make him equal to the occasion or the world may pass him by. Our scientific knowledge is expanding faster than a shot gun shell on charcoal fire. What is needed, therefore, is men whose thought capacity can keep pace with the changes around us: flexible men, with a broad background. Only the best school education based on sound and broad foundations can meet this need.

Education Costs in Canadian Colleges and Universities

EDUCATION, and specially higher education is more in demand today than ever before. Unlike what happened a generation or two ago, schooling now is not confined to the learning of a few skills. Apart from its value in dollars and cents, learning is for life, for complete living, and for the cultivation of virtues befitting the citizen of a free state. An educated man should be able to judge for himself how to utilize the gifts of a material civilization. Further, it is recognized that, scientific progress, technical advancement and economic success are all an outcome of good education and it alone has the potential of meeting the challenge of the day. If there is a race between peaceful progress and destruction through war, education will be the weapon used to get victory for the former.

We read and hear so much about the Russian system of education and its achievements. We also know that Britain and the United States are ahead of many countries in providing facilities of higher education to their youngsters. What is the situation in Canada ? Many of us are interested in knowing who goes to College, how much money does he spend, on what items does he spend the money that he gets, from where does he get the money, and so on. To answer these and other relevent and related questions in a comprehensive manner the Education Division, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa, conducted a survey in 1956-57, in which almost 10,000 students from selected colleges and universities all over Canada participated.

High costs of university education, unavailability of enough fund, and the attraction of earning good wages without going to college are some of the reasons why only a few ambitious youngsters go ahead. In Canada between 7 to 8% of boys and girls of age group 18 to 24 are enrolled in colleges. Even among them there are some who fail to reach the top of the ladder. Many drop out because of inadequate financial resources. According to the survey the students in the First Year were twice as many as in the Fourth Year of college. Besides, a number of students were reported to have postponed entrance to college because of lack of funds. There were others who had withdrawn from college or attended college part-time for the same reason. The percentage of men who did so was higher than women.

Women formed nearly one quarter of the entire group of students included in the survey. Among undergraduate students of both sexes only 1 out of every 10 was married, and of the graduates 2 out of every 5 were married. About two thirds of married students were working full time or part-time while going to college.

The survey revealed that the larger cities were better represented in the colleges and universities than their population demanded. The reason is obvious. A number of colleges and universities are located in large cities. There are two main reasons why a youngster living in a college town has more chances of going for higher education than his counterpart living away from such locality. From a very young age there is a great incentive for the children of that town to read and hear about and get interested in university activities, and make up their method to go there when the time comes. This is not surprising because it requires lesser amount of cash for a youngster living in a university town to attend the university than for one who has to leave home to do so. According to the report on the survey, the average total expenses of a college year for a student living with his parents were $933, and for the one living away from home $1,326 a difference of nearly $400. One should not lose sight of the fact that this difference is not actual and is related to the cash outlay only. Items such as room and board, use of automobile, laundry, snacks and other amenities available to the student as a member of the family cannot be calculated in dollars and cents. The Survey points out that about one-third of the students lived at home while going to college. On the whole, it was the younger students who

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stayed with the parents. As the age increased the percentage of students living at home decreased.

Some families had only one child going to college, whereas there were others who had children other than the participating student going to college at the same time. Some students had older brothers and sisters who had attended college before. Thus the survey showed that 1 in every 20 student families had three or more children who attended college some time or the other.

A large number of students received full or part financial support from their families. Although the range of student-family-income was from zero to over $10,000, they showed higher averages than Canadian families in general. There were about 50 per cent of student-families included in the survey with an annual income of $5,000 or less, but in the nation there were 70 per cent of such families. Students with a family income $10,000 or more were about 15 per cent, whereas there were a little over 3 per cent of the families in the nation with such income. Another interesting fact was that the women students came from comparatively higher income families than the men students. Thus it seemed that those who had the money went for higher education. It is hard for an individual with enough intelligence but no money to get the opportunity of developing his faculties and talents to the full. For women the case is worse. With fewer openings for summer jobs and lesser pay they find it harder to cope with the prohibitive costs of college education, unless their parents can well afford it. As will be seen later there are not enough scholarships, bursaries and other grants in aid, on which every needy student can bank money.

Another fact that throws light on the situation of higher education is that the largest single group of parents in the survey were proprietors and managers. The second largest group consisted of professionals. These two groups put together represented nearly half the parents. The percentage of proprietors, managers and professionals in the survey was higher than the one found in the population. A very interesting relationship was noticed between the parent's occupation and the child's course of study. A number of Engineering, Medical and Law students reported their parents as Engineers, Doctors and Lawyers respectively. This is something for the social psychologist to note.

The students who were living away from home came from different distances to attend the university. There were some whose permanent home was more than 1000 miles away. About 8 per cent of total students participating in the survey came from other lands, the largest number coming from the United States. According to the survey very few Canadian men and still fewer women living on farms had the opportunity of going to college. A large majority of college going women were city residents.

When students come out of homes they have to select a place of residence. Various factors such as nearness to the college, friends and relatives, cost and comfort, guide their decision. In most cases the cost of living and eating is the deciding factor. The survey reports that a large number of them live within one mile of the campus, almost walking distance. Some ate at their places of residence with snacks and lunches bought from outside, others ate out side all the time, and still others who never ate outside. In the survey nearly half the students belonged to the latter category.

The majority of students in the Canadian Universities seek employment during the summer vacation to earn the money needed for the following college year. For some it is an additional spending money, whereas there are others who either must earn money or stay out of college. In the summer of 1956 nearly nine-tenths of students had jobs of various descriptions and varying salaries. Some of the positions held were closely related to the student's course work, such as those of medical intern, articled law student, assistant engineer, draftsman, surveyor, teacher, research technician, etc. Jobs which required special skills included those of machine repairman, carpenter, plumber, typist, stenographer, radio announcer etc. Casual and miscellaneous jobs found students working as truck drivers, bus drivers, cooks, bakers, golf caddies,

porters, janitors, labourers, etc. During that summer, there was a larger percentage of women than men students who were without jobs. Monthly income received from summer positions ranged from a few dollars to $750. A maximum saving of $3,500 was reported. The men students earned higher salaries than women students. The average earnings of each student increased with age. One of the reasons may be that the older students were in the advanced years of course work and so they had the opportunity of getting better positions. The average earning per month was $216.

In addition to summer employment a little over one quarter of the total students were earning while learning according to the survey. Some were studying full time and working part-time and a few others were studying part-time and working full time. In order to supplement their income by part-time work, a majority of these took up any available job. There were some who worked for the college, *e.g.*, at the library, cafetaria, office, laboratory etc. A few of these positions were related to the student's course work. Similar positions outside the campus included those of teacher, coach, school psychologist, industrial psychologist, nurse, surveyor, engineer, mechanic, law clerk etc. But nearly one half of those working during the college year were engaged in casual and miscellaneous jobs of a temporary nature. These included baby-sitting, housekeeping, bar tending, truck driving, clerking in stores, butchering, barbering, working in restaurants and on odd jobs etc. A few students worked for their parents or for room and board only. Since much time was not left after doing justice to their studies, the students worked on an average of 7 hours per week. In all age groups, according to the survey a higher percentage of men than women students worked during the college year.

It was not only the students who earned in order to go to college, a number of married students reported their spouses working full time or part-time to pay their way through college.

Costs of a college year differed as between student and student. In the same campus and in the same faculty one student may spend twice as much as another. It was noticed that students coming from higher-income-families spent more than the others. In faculties like Medicine, Law and Engineering higher fees and books and equipment of educational value were more numerous and expensive than those required by the students of some other faculties, and correspondingly their budgets were higher. The survey shows that there was a small number of students in the total of 10,000 who spent as little as $400 or less during the college year. They were living with their parents. On the other side of the picture, there were a few, but rare, who spent 5,000 or more. These were married students with dependents. They spent most of their money on capital purchases. On the whole married students spent considerably more than single students, and men spent more than women. The total expenditure of both men and women increased every succeeding year, the difference from the first year to the last was $210. The Average total expenses of undergraduates of different faculties are given below :

Faculty	Living at home	Away from home
	$	$
Arts and Science ..	868	1,216
Engineering	1,087	1,418
Medicine	1,276	1,794
Law	1,231	1,763
Education	688	983
Total (average)	933	1,326

The average total expenditure for graduates was $1,649. The average for single students was $1,191, as compared to $2,134 for married students. The students of colleges in Ontario and Quebec reported higher expenditures than those of other provinces.

As students reported their expenses by items, it was calculated that the total living costs were double the educational costs. Many graduate students were married and had dependents. This fact accounted for their still higher proportion for living costs.

A very clear and interesting analogy is seen when an average budget of living costs of a university student is compared to an average budget of a city family by major items. The figures for the city family expenditure are based on the average of the seven largest cities of Canada. While interpreting the two sets of figures, the reader should keep in mind that many of the colleges and universities included in the survey are not located in these cities. In the figures given below a whole dollar is approximately divided into cents spent on various items :

Items	*Student* $	*City family* $
Housing	17	17
Food	27	25
Snacks, smoking etc.	7	4
Recreation and entertainment	10	4
Health	4	4
Personal care ..	2	2
Clothing	14	9
Gifts, contributions ..	2	2
Capital costs ..	7	6
Others	10	27

In brief, the main items on which students spend more than the city family were snacks, recreation and clothing. The expenditure on the rest of the items was very close. The reasons for the differences are obvious.

When a comparison was made between the budgets of men and women students, it was found that women spent more on grooming and clothing, and men spent more on snacks and recreation. During the college year a few female students spent as much as $800 on clothing.

Expenditure on tuition fees varied from faculty to faculty and college to college. The Survey shows that one-half of the students paid $325 or less and the other half more than this amount. Next to fees, food was the largest single item of expense in a majority of student budgets. About one quarter of them did not report any expense on this item as they were living with their families. For all those who were staying away from home room rent was also a big item of expense. The average food expense for the college year was around $300 and the average room expense about $200. Some students spent as little as $ 5 or less on snacks or recreation, whereas there were others who spent even more than $200. The average on snacks was $50 and on recreation and entertainment $70 for the college year.

Transportation expense fluctuated from zero to several hundred dollars. It largely depended on the location of the students permanent and campus homes. Students from other lands spent large sums of money to arrive in Canada. There were about one-eighths of students who owned their own automobiles. A few saved money by hitch-hiking.

Many articles were mentioned under the expense item of capital costs. Besides things of educational value, house-hold furnishings and other things bought for the family were mentioned. At the bottom things such as ash trays, bulbs, plugs, cushions etc., were included. Some reported purchases of musical instruments and radio and television sets. Others mentioned fur coats, engagement and wedding rings, expensive jewellery etc. On the whole about 5 per cent of the total money was spent on capital purchases, and only one-third of the students reported making any such purchases. The men students spent more than women students on these. Further, not only that men spent more, but there was a much higher percentage of them who made these purchases.

The following table shows the division of a dollar into major items of expenditure for a college student :

Item	*Percentage of expenditure*
Room and Board	29·2
Fees and Books	27·1
Health, Grooming and Clothing	14·7
Recreation and Entertainment	12·6
Other Current Expenses ..	6·1
Transportation	5·4
Capital Costs	4·9

Room and board took away the maximum out of a dollar. To a large extent this item was eliminated for those who were fortunate enough to have their supporting families in the college town. For them tuition fees and books was the item of expenditure which required the largest amount of money and on which they had little control once they had selected their field of study and the college. Expenditure on other items that follow, could in most cases be reduced to a minimum by those who wanted to live on modest or economy budgets. A number of students spent nothing or a bare minimum on snacks, recreation, clothing, transportation etc. The amount of money spent by a student was not always positively related to the quality of education, because it depended on what, where and how he spent what he had. Most of these facts were related to the funds, habits and needs of the individual, and the averages discussed should be interpreted in the light of this statement.

The money that the students spent came from various sources. Since it was not possible to find out the cost of the amenities which the students enjoyed as family members, the discussion is limited to their cash income only. The survey reported that the students depended largely on their own earnings. This fact is different from what a survey on the students of colleges and universities in the United States undertaken in 1952-1953, reported. According to the latter survey the family provided the largest amount of cash to the students. Canadian students, thus, seemed to be more self-dependent. About two-fifths of the total funds came from the summer and part-time earnings of the students themselves. The family provided a little over one-fourth of the total money. The graduate students depended mostly on their own earnings and received very little by way of family support. This deficiency was made up by larger amounts of scholarships, fellowships bursaries and other grants in aid they received. These provided about one-eighth of their total income. The under-graduates also received scholarships, bursaries etc., but in a smaller number and amount. The average amount of money received by the graduates in scholarships was $1,000 or more, but for the undergraduates this amount was only $290. This was hardly sufficient to pay their fees, or board if they were living away from home. About 15 per cent of students received scholarships of some amount. Comparing the family income of the students and the scholarship award, it was found that the largest number of scholarship recipients had reported their family income between $4,000 and 7,000. In most cases students with families having lower income received scholarship awards of larger amounts and *vice versa.* About one-fourth of the scholarship recipients reported that their family income was less than $2,000. But only one-fourteenth of the total students participating in the survey represented families of such income. On the other hand one-fourteenth of the scholarships were awarded to students having a family income $10,000 or more. They were one-seventh of the entire student group in the survey. The largest number of scholarships were awarded to First Year students. These were more than their number demanded.

As would be expected, students with scholarship awards got less money from their families as compared to others. The money received from the family decreased with the increase in the scholarship amount. One-fifth of scholarship recipients had less than $100 from their families. This kind of negative relationship between scholarship money and family contribution leads to two conclusions : 1. The scholarships were awarded, and specially the amount of money given was decided upon, in consideration of the needs and requirements of the individual student concerned. 2. When a student received enough money through the scholarship award, he did not require much money to supplement it from family funds.

An interesting relationship was noticed between the amount of scholarship and the amount of expenditure. Those who had higher scholarships spent more. It may be that higher amounts of scholarships were given because the student needed more money or those who received larger sums of money by way of scholarships could afford to spend more than those who received smaller amounts.

Bursaries are awards generally granted in recognition of the need and scholarship of the individual student. In most cases they carry lesser amount of money than scholarships. The present survey showed that not only the bursary amounts were smaller but the number of bursaries granted was also fewer. Only 12 per cent of the students received bursaries. Of these, two-thirds reported their family income as less than $4,000 and one-fiftieth as $10,000 and over.

In the Faculty of Arts and Science a larger percentage of women than men students received scholarships. But the amount of money given was smaller for women. For bursaries the situation was a little different. Men students received a larger number of bursaries and the amounts were also larger as compared to what women received.

There were several other kinds of grants in aid besides scholarships and bursaries. These were received by only a few students. Some of these grants were from the Department of Veterans' Affairs, National Defence, Regular Officers' Training Plan etc.

The amount of money contributed by the family towards the education of its wards depended mainly on two factors : the availability of funds and the need of the particular student. The families with higher incomes contributed more than those with comparatively lower incomes. On an average those who supplied their university going wards with $1,000 or more had an income of $7,000 or more. The students living at home required and received less than those living away from home even if the family income was the same. Some families provided all the money for their ward's college education even when the level of income was low.

About three-fifths of students received financial assistance from their families with an averge of $552. The highest average was for the students of the Faculty of Law. It was $864. Almost all the students of Classical Colleges included in the survey reported that they received money from their parents. As far as the students and family assistance to them were concerned, it seemed that the formula of supply and demand could be applied. For example the students of Law and Medicine required more money as compared to others and the family supplied them with more. The students of Arts and Science had average budgets as compared to other faculties in the survey and they did not show very high or very low averages for the amounts of money received from the families. The women students got more from their parents partly because they earned less and received lesser amounts from other grants. A little over three-fourths of women students of Arts and Science received family aid, with an average of $664. A little over one-half of the men received it with an average of $455.

The importance of loans as financial aid to the students can be recognized by the fact that almost one-tenth of the total funds as shown by the present survey was borrowed from different sources. More than half of the money was loaned by parents, and it is doubtful how much of it can be placed in the category of regular loans. The average loan from any source was about $300. The data showed that fewer students living at home needed to borrow money as compared to those living away from home. Fewer women than men students borrowed money but the amounts they borrowed were larger. At the end of the year some students reported outstanding debts. The average debt reported was around $400.

Out of every dollar spent by the students, 30 cents came from the savings of the summer job earnings. About three-fourths of the students reported these savings and an average saving of $507 was reported. The average savings of the men students of the Faculty of Arts and Science was $559 and of the women $303. Summer employment not only provided the money, it also profited some of the students by providing them with opportunities to do the type of work which was related to their course work.

A little over one-quarter of the students in the survey were earning while learning. Their average earning was $217 . This earning accounted for nearly one-tenth of the total income of all the students. The graduate students reported that nearly one-quarter of their income came from earning while going to college. The average part-time earnings of

men students were more than twice as much as that of women students. The latter worked a lesser number of hours and for lower salaries. These two factors accounted for their lower earnings.

The following table shows the division of a dollar into income from major sources.

Sources	*Percentage of Income*
Earnings	39·6
Family Funds and Gifts	27·5
Loans	9·4
Previous Savings	7·9
Scholarships and Bursaries	6·4
Other Sources	4·2
National Defence, R.O.T.P., D.V.A.	2·6
Other Grants	2·4

Although a large number of students in Canadian colleges and universities depend on themselves for their financial requirements, there are others who have to tap various sources in order to meet the high costs of education. The percentage of students who were able to provide for themselves through scholarships, bursaries and summer and part-time earnings varied from faculty to faculty. It was found that 32 per cent of Graduates, 18 per cent in Engineering, 15 per cent in Arts and Science, 12 per cent in Education, 9 per cent in Law and 4 per cent in Medicine paid their way, considering that they received $100 or less from their families, friends and loans.

The above discussion points out several interesting and noteworthy facts. The students worked hard to earn money not only during the summer vacation but also during the college year. They did so because they needed money, otherwise the usefulness of part time work is questionable. How far this work interferes with the studies and affects the physical, mental and social health of the student, is not known. The number of scholarships, bursaries and other grants is limited, and in most cases the amount of money thus received is far from sufficient to meet the expenses of the students. The parents do their best. It is near impossible to support a child fully in college when the family income is less than $5,000, besides it is hard even on families with higher incomes when they have more than one child at college. The intelligent, ambitious and hard working youngster does manage to get through the college, but he can do still better if he does not have to worry for his bare necessities. The bright side of the picture is that the public as well as the Government is gradually becoming aware of the situation and there is every hope that the things will be different in not too distant a future.

(*Continued from page* 146)

After the afternoon classes the boys and girls go to the playground for healthy recreation. The school boys and girls have literary meetings every week. Besides, the senior students also arrange literary functions, debates, study circles and publish wall papers. Sometimes, students arrange dramas and variety shows.

Our Santiniketan is like a big family. All of us have friendly relationship with one another. The relation between the teacher and the taught is close and cordial. In the words of Gurudev—

She is our own, the darling of our hearts
  Our Santiniketan.
Our dreams are locked in her arms, her face is a fresh wonder of love,
  Every time we see her.
She is our own, the darling of our hearts.

INDRANI BAGCHI
Student, Tatan Palli,
Santiniketan
(W. Bengal)

Value of Post-Vacation Examinations

"OF THE PURPOSES for which examinations are held, certainly the first, namely, the evaluation of progress, is the most important. On it depends not only grading and promotion but even the method of instruction."(1) Falling in line with this view, expressed by eminent educationists, several projects have been undertaken in India in order to effect suitable reforms in the present system of school examinations.

With a view to evaluating the maximal progress of the students through an examination, the examiner must critically take into account all the factors relating to *method*, *technique*, *spread* and *moment* of the examination. On methods and techniques, much thought has been given and experiments have been carried out but comparatively little attention has been given to the two other factors *viz.*, *spread* and *moment*. Of these, *spread* pertains to the problem of optimum duration and comfortable periodicity of examinations, whereas, *moment* deals with the most opportune season of the examination when it can yield the truest possible representative picture of the progress of the examinee.

All over India, examinations in schools are held at different times in different areas according to local circumstances. Students may sometimes grumble about the timing because of personal inconvenience caused by bad weather, preceding or approaching social festivities and the like. This problem relates to the *moment*-factor of the examination system and deserves thorough study as to its responsibility for the success and failure of the examinee.

The problem has its polygonal facets. These are to be attacked with an all-important attitude towards the overall reform of the system of examination. In the present study, attention has been given only to *one* of the many facets.

The aspect or the facet of the problem on which the present attack is concentrated through this paper is the question of value of an examination, held just after a long school vacation to assess and evaluate the progress made by students during a certain period or term. In other words, the author of this paper has stepped into a hitherto untrodden province of the so-called examination riddle. Namely the consideration of the value of post-vacation examinations, their superior evaluating value over the pre-vacation ones.

Popular View

The popular view of the teachers, of course, contributes to the general and common belief that the pre-vacation examination is preferable to the post-vacation one inasmuch as the pre-one evaluates the immediately gained knowledge of students and therefore the scored results are satisfactory and consequently encouraging to the examinees. This view provides a source of encouragement to the teachers as well. But it gives limited consideration to the system of learning and memorisation within the mental structure of school students. Learning and memorisation are closely and indispensably interrelated and as such any discussion of proper learning must, as a matter of fact, include some relevant reference to the mysterious mechanisms of memorisation and retention of learned materials. If any examination virtually aims at assessing the actual amount of learning 'retained' in the examinee, then it would have no other alternative than to pay respect to the famous and accepted findings of Ebbinghaus (2) on the amount of retention gained immediately after learning and after a long lapse of time therefrom. Ebbinghaus's findings and his well-known retention-curve show that retention of learning is generally stable only after a long lapse of time and not immediately after the learning. Loss of learning is generally very rapid during the period just following learning and as such it would be rather doubtful whether there is any efficacy in an examination held just after learning which runs the risk of evaluating a losing trend of learning, instead of evaluating the actual-most amount of learning properly retained.

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With an honest intention of convincing the popular 'pre-vacation' belief with some observed facts based on this scientific judgement, the author of this paper undertook an unbiased study programme on the problem in a Calcutta High School.

Purposive Sampling

The study was planned to be conducted with a batch of 56 students of the Chandi Charan High School, Central Calcutta. Fifty per cent of them were above average and the other 50 per cent below average. In fact, the sampling was made purposive and was deliberately restricted to a mixed group of students of equally proportionate above and below average ability so as to eliminate any bias in the investigation. For the present study, the score of 40 was taken as the average standard on the basis of the results of the preceding annual examination. The argument in favour of this sort of purposive sampling is that in case of any positive findings that might come out of the present study on the efficacy of the post-vacation examination, then even this group, consisting of equal proportion of students of high and low average ability, would show a balanced amount of progress in the results and would thus establish the fact more firmly that the post-vacation examination is superior, or in the event of any adverse outcome of findings, the superiority of this examination would be called into question.

Two parallel tests on Arithmetic were also prepared, one to be used before the vacation, the other after the vacation. Both the tests carried 100 marks and were designed for a 3-hour non-objective paper-pencil-type examination as usual for the students of the junior secondary stage. The plan of the study was kept secret even from the teachers to avoid any risk of manipulation of scoring on their part. Not a hint was given to the students, that they would be further examined after the vacation, lest they might concentrate upon studying deeply during the vacation thereby affecting the post-vacation results far too positively.

Administration and Collection of Data

It was scheduled that the pre-vacation test should be administered only a week before the commencement of the vacation and the post-vacation test would be held just a week after the long vacation.

The pre-vacation examination was held according to schedule in May 1957 just a week before the six-week-long Summer Vacation. The test was given to all the 56 students of the sample group by the class teachers. All scoring of papers and tabulations of results were done by those teachers. Scoring was numerical. The results in which the highest raw score was 74 and the lowest 5 on a percentile scale were kept undisclosed.

The post-vacation test was administered after a total lapse of eight weeks from the pre-vacation one. This time eight students did not appear at the test due to personal reasons; hence the strength of the sample group was actually reduced to 48 with an inevitable wastage of some data collected from the pre-vacation test. The results were however decidedly better and encouraging as the highest raw score rose up to 99 and the lowest down to 17.

There is no doubt that in both the pre-vacation and post-vacation test scores, large variable errors are present. The fact that the sampling was purposive served to increase the errors in the scores. It should not be overlooked, however, that random sampling formulas apply more or less accurately to purposive samples ([3a]), inasmuch as purposive sampling is almost truly representative and as such, sampling fluctuations and errors of measurement are less than would otherwise be the case.

Another fact which probably affected the significance of the test scores was that the size of the sample was not very large. Assuming, however, that the present sample numbering 48 was all drawn from a normal population, the range covered by them will be approximately $\pm 2\cdot 5$ S.D. ([3b]). A range of ± 2.5 S.D. from the mean includes 9,876 cases in 10,000 in a normally distributed population. In a sample of 10,000, only 124 cases lie outside this range; in a sample of 48 cases, as in the present study, therefore, none lies outside this range. The reliability of the data in the present study,

eventually, need not be much looked down upon merely because of the smallness of the sample.

Furthermore, it is feared that some subjective errors have crept in due to the use of non-objective questions and the application of stereotyped numerical scoring procedure. Undoubtedly, the errors present in the raw scores were increased by this fact. With this apprehension, a test of Arithmetic was preferred to a test on any other subject in order to hold out the errors of subjectivity to the minimum. To minimise these errors, great care, however, was taken in transmutation and sound statistical procedure was followed in computation. In spite of that, it was not possible, in all cases, to be sure that the transmuted scores were really equivalent to the original ones. The effect of increasing such variable errors was to lower the significant difference between the positive and the negative results produced therethrough.

Had it been possible to eliminate all these errors completely, the author is of opinion that the positive conclusion of this study would have been more significant and appealing to laymen. There is however much scope for follow-up study of the problem with a larger sample.

The Computation of T-Scores etc.

The next step after collection was to calculate and compute the data to arrive at a final conclusion. In the present investigation, it was found after preliminary calculation that the differential scores (*i.e.* Post-Vacation scores *minus* Pre-Vacation scores) were of considerable discriminating value and that the positive differential scores were 69 per cent of the working sample (constituting 28 out of 48) and the negative differential scores, as such, were 31 per cent only of the entire sample (20 out of 48).

As these differential scores would greatly baffle proper comparison between the positive and the negative groups, inasmuch as, their respective units of scales might be suspected to vary from each other, it was decided that the differential scores should be normalised by converting them into T-Scores. This conversion provided both the positive and the negative distributions a common mean of 50 and S.D. of 10, thus facilitating advantageous comparison. Another step was taken to equalise both the positive and the negative groups by converting their respective frequencies into percent-frequencies, thereby eliminating the difficulty in comparison arising out of unequal size (N) of the groups (Positive 28 and Negative 20).

Judgement through Skewness

Actual' medians calculated from the T-Score distributions of the two differential groups reveal that the median of 50.8 of the positive group was higher than its normalised mean of 50 thereby indicating negative skewness of the distribution and the scores are massed at the high end of the scale. The median of 48.5 of the negative group is lower than its normalised mean of 50 thereby suggesting positive skewness of the distribution, *i.e.* the negative differential scores are clustered towards the low end of scale. This observation is interesting so far as both the measures of skewness conspire to show that positive differential scores are greater in this study.

Finally, the observed results were tested against a null hypothesis with the help of a Chi-square test. The hypothesis was that the positive differential scores would be as low as 25 per cent (*i.e.* 12 out of 48). On the basis of these guessed or expected results, the Chi-square was computed at 26.69 with P less than .01. The discrepancy between the observed and the guessed values is here so great that the hypothesis of a higher negative distribution must be rejected. The Chi-square is very large and the probability (P) that the obtained results may really diverage from the guessed results is highly significant even beyond the .01 level of confidence, on the grounds that the divergence of results is too unlikely of occurrence to be accounted for solely by sampling fluctuations.

Judgement of Predictive Value

Through the measurement of linear correlation, it was also observed that the scores of the post-vacation test held a higher predictive value than that of the pre-vacation scores, inasmuch as the co-efficient of

correlation between the post-vacation test and the following annual examination was .57 whereas that between the pre-vacation test and the annual school examination was .50. The predictive value of the post-vacation test is therefore obviously higher. The difference between the two co-efficients is however not very large because of the fact that both the correlation groups have been taken from the same sample and that both of them assumed to be positively correlated(6). It may be maintained further that the correlation co-efficients of the tests and their differences would have been much higher, in case the size of the sample was larger and the experimental groups were chosen from different strata of sample.

Summary and Conclusions

The Problem : The problem of this investigation has been to determine how far a post-vacation examination evaluates the progress of students better than a pre-vacation examination.

Observations : At the outset, it was found that 69 per cent of the entire experimental group showed a positive improvement in the post-vacation examination. Through the measures of skewness it was further established that the positive differences were higher than negative differences in the post-vacation test. Over-imposed percent-frequency polygons also passed the same verdict. These findings would have been more impressive if the size of the sample were larger. At last, through a Chi-square test, any other hypothesis or expectations had to be totally rejected. The predictive value of the post-vacation test was also found to be higher in forecasting the achievement in the following Annual School Examination. The observations were followed up in the following year of 1958 and it is encouraging that more or less similar results were obtained in support of the conclusion that the post-vacation school examination gives a better picture of one's progress in studies.

Conclusions : This paper, therefore, advocates the preference of holding periodical or terminal examinations sometime only after a long vacation. This investigation reveals the fact that a post-vacation examination can represent a better picture of one's retained learning and progress thereon. It therefore goes directly against the popular notion that pre-vacation examination, held just after the learning-term concludes, yields higher scores.

The most obvious reason for this improvement would seem to be the freedom from fatigue that results from the rest through a long-vacation. The principle of consolidation may also be invoked to explain this phenomenon(4). According to Dr. Ballard, along with the obliviscence that takes place as a result of lapse of time, there is reminiscence, due to the endopsychic consolidation and organisation of the memory traces into engram-complexes(5). It is important to note that reminiscence and obliviscence are going on at the same time, counteracting each other's effects. The improvement after a long lapse of time, as in the present study, really represents a credit balance in favour of reminiscence. It is therefore well in accord to believe that the excitement of a disposition does not die out immediately after the corresponding experience passes out of consciousness, but continues in a lower or modified form some days and weeks after, and thus, tends to arrest and reverse the process of dissolution.

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EDUCATING THROUGH DISCUSSION

THE IMPORTANCE OF the discussion method as an effective medium of education was realised for the first time in India by the exponents of General Education. The Universities which have so far introduced General Education Programme have, therefore, given the discussion method a place of honour. The emphasis on the discussion method may be attributed to the growing dissatisfaction with the lecture method in which the students play a passive role. It was found extremely desirable to supplement it with a device which may give the students an opportunity for active participation in the teaching learning situations. The discussion method provides ample opportunities for this. At Aligarh where General Education has lately been introduced as a compulsory course for the first degree, the proportion between lectures and discussions is 2:3 per week respectively. The teachers of General Education have had the unique opportunity to put the discussion method into practice with about 1,200 students. The purpose of this article is to describe the discussion method in action, to suggest criteria for the assessment of its efficacy and validity and to point out its superior educative values.

Preliminary Considerations

In order to get the maximum benefit out of the method, big classes are split up into small groups comprising about 15 students or preferably less. All the members share equally in the deliberations and also share the responsibility of the outcome under the leadership of the teachers. There is no audience and the discussions are held in surroundings conducive to informality. The chairs are arranged in such a way that the participants see each other. The students remain seated while speaking. The primary purpose of the discussion is to share information about a topic of mutual interest. The teacher generally initiates the discussion but sometimes one of the brighter members may be asked to set the ball rolling. The students are encouraged to say whatever they feel and think about the problem. The teacher enters into the discussion only to ask clarifying questions; to bring the discussion back to the subject or to keep the discussion from becoming one-sided. He has generally to make suggestions instead of giving directions and to ask questions instead of answering them. In the end he may give a summary of the points of agreement and also of the divergent views.

Topics for Discussion

The topics for discussion may be of two types such as topics of general interest and topics related to the general education syllabus. Some topics pertaining to the social science broad-field are as follows :—

1. Should democracy aim at the social good through individual freedom and free enterprize or through keeping him in check ?
2. Should students participate in politics?
3. The existence of a large number of political parties is conducive to political instability.
4. How to make democracy safe in India ?
5. Does the economic progress of India rest on industrialization or agricultural development or both?
6. Is it necessary for the development of a broad national and secular outlook to replace English by Hindi as the medium of instruction in our Universities ?
7. "The real history of India in the 'Middle Ages' is the record of attempts at synthesis and cooperation between Hindus and Muslims on a thousand plane".
8. "It would be impossible to think of an India where no Mughals ruled; where no Taj was built and where no Macaulay wrote his minutes on education".

Inside the Discussion Room

(Here is an account of one of the group discussions. The group comprised about

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10 students of the B.A. Part I class. The names of the active participants in the discussion are Messrs : Anis, Junaid, Jagdish and Vadra. The topic was assigned on a previous turn so that the students may come prepared for participation in the discussion. One of the students (Anis) who has come with a written note on the topic, has been given the opportunity to initiate the discussion by reading out his note).

Anis : The topic for discussion is : How to make democracy safe in India ?

(reads) In the functioning of a democratic system political parties and such other organizations play an active role. The first step to make democracy safe in India is that all political parties be governed by reason and not by prejudice. If they will act against this it would seriously affect the working of democracy on sound lines. Another step which should be taken is to give education to the people so that they may understand the problems facing the country and thus they will know their rights and duties.

Nasir :— I agree with Mr. Anis in the remark that the success of democracy depends on education and on the removal of illiteracy. Thus the people will be able to give vote to right men and will not be easily exploited by dishonest persons.

Junaid :— I think that inequality in status and income should be removed. The removal of the extreme poverty of the masses is essential for the success of democracy.

Teacher :— Nobody can do this for you unless you yourself try to achieve it. What is to be done then ?

Vadra :—We can achieve all this by establishing true democracy.

Anis :—What is true democracy ?

Vadra :—(hurriedly turns some pages of his note-book and reads) Democracy is a system of life in which people participate in framing policies and executing them in order to attain dignity of the individual, equality of human beings and social good.

Teacher :—Which of the objectives pointed out by you is most important ?

Vadra :—Social good is the most important one because if we take this into consideration in our daily life all will be happy and democracy will be liked by all.

Jagdish :—Social good sometimes clashes with individual good.

Vadra :—The government can make some laws to secure social good.

Teacher :—This means that you are willing to surrender some of your freedom for the good of the society.

Some Students :—Yes, we must.

Teacher :—Suppose there is a dictator who tries to ensure the maximum of social good. Would you call him democratic ?

Vadra :—No, we cannot call him democratic because he does not fulfil the other conditions of democracy such as people's participation in the framing of policies. His government may be for the people but it is definitely not by the people.

Teacher :—Very good. Now let us proceed in our task of finding some concrete suggestions for making democracy safe in India.

Singh :—I think democracy can be put on a sound footing by nationalizing industries so that their profit may go to the public.

Jagdish :—I think this is against democracy because it will deny freedom to the businessmen concerned. This will rather kill democracy.

Teacher :—You should consider your opinion in the light of the directive of the Constitution which

envisages a socialistic pattern of society and hence the State is authorised to take over all such means of production and capital which might be working against the interests of the common man.

Jagdish :—I think only those industries should be nationalised which do harm to society, otherwise private ownership should be retained.

(The discussion now centred round the merits and demerits of private enterprize but the teacher intervened.)

Teacher :—It is now time to summarise the points of agreement as well as the divergent views. The points which are common to all are eradication of poverty and illiteracy as the key to the success of democracy. Some believe in nationalization of industries and others are of the view that private enterprize should be allowed to exist unless its activities stand in the way of the well being of the common man.

Criteria of Effectiveness

In order to ascertain the effectiveness of the discussion the first thing to be taken into consideration is student's participation in the discussion. This may be taken as one of the criteria of the effectiveness of the discussion. Other criteria may be objective and unbiased thinking and systematic presentation etc. Another way of ascertaining the effectiveness of the discussion is to elicit information from the students themselves whether the purpose of the discussion was clear to them; were they interested in the topic and whether many of the students participated in the discussion or it was dominated by the teachers, etc. etc.

Merits of Discussion Method

The merit of the discussion technique obviously lies in giving the students an opportunity to think effectively and objectively through organizing ideas, drawing conclusions based on evidence and also the reconsideration of opinion in the light of new evidence supplied by the group of mind. It may be pointed out that through discussion it is possible to elicit some information from the dullest of the students and the back benchers of the big lecture rooms. The informal atmosphere of the discussion encourages better student-teacher relations which are likely to be helpful in resolving the problem of student indiscipline caused by lack of understanding and contact between the teacher and the taught. Further the discussion method which provides full opportunities for mutual sharing of ideas is a guarantee against indoctrination. Even the teacher has to accept the views of the students if supported by laudable arguments. The best discussion on this ground is that in which the teacher remains in the background and respects the opinion of the members.

• The sense of honour is of so fine and delicate a nature that it is only to be met within minds which are naturally noble, or in such as have been cultivated by good examples, or a refined education. —*Addison*

Some Impressions of English Education

MOST EDUCATIONISTS in our modern world would desire to provide a child-centred education wherever that was possible. However, in many countries circumstances hinder provision of such an education. Among these educational circumstances is the practice of setting examinations. These are usually devised on a basis of so-called "established subjects", and teachers therefore feel that they are committed to teaching such subjects irrespective of the interests of their pupils. As a result, the extension of child-centred education is hindered. But in English primary schools, teachers consider examinations a minor feature of the educational system. Further, in England especially in primary schools other circumstances combine to encourage teachers to develop a child-centred curriculum.

Perhaps the most encouraging of these circumstances is the fact that teachers in primary schools in England have the requisite skills, possess materials and find the time to construct the teaching apparatus. For example, they devise and construct reading and arithmetic cards big enough for small children to use with ease. Teachers can then guide their pupils in using these cards to teach themselves. This ensures that children are active in the pursuit of knowledge, and, as children in these classes can usually select from a variety of apparatus, a "quality" of child-centredness is a consequence. English teachers appear to be adept at providing for themselves what we in India might call "audio-visual" aids.

Clearly, if the curriculum of primary schools is to be child-centred, some provision must be made for children to work at material which suits their own individual needs. Walk with me into a typical English primary school class-room and see how it is done. The room looks like a museum in miniature. A variety of charts used in the teaching of number, hang on the walls. Ranged round the room are cards each bearing a short word; pupils read these and so build up their vocabularies. Scrap books, prepared by pupils themselves, hang in one corner of the room, while pictures, drawn and coloured during art classes, occupy wall space in the same corner. Wooden boxes of soil sprout seeds, and these are part of the nature study lessons now in progress. Weather charts, on which the children make daily entries, occupy part of the wall between blackboard and door. A book-corner is an essential feature of the room. Here we find general reading books available to pupils at all times. Charts, cards, specimens, pictures and books of this kind together provide a setting for purposeful activity, an essential feature of a child-centred curriculum.

Among other circumstances which encourage teacher in primary schools to develop a child-centred curriculum is the fact that they are not obliged to follow centrally prescribed and rigid syllabuses of work. Each teacher seems free to frame his syllabus so as to suit the needs of his children and the environment of the school. Consider for example, school X.... Its pupils come from working class homes, and its class-rooms are cramped, but its teaching apparatus is modern and its teachers are continually adding to it. In this school, the entire morning session is devoted to basic subjects like English and Arithmetic, but a visitor to one of the class-rooms at any given moment during the morning would see children engaged on a variety of tasks. Some would be doing sums—but not necessarily the same sums; some would be working at English—though some would be writing, others reading and a handful completing exercises. In such ways the teacher adjusts a tentative syllabus to the individual needs of his children.

A third circumstance which contributes greatly to the development of a child-centred education in English primary schools is the close and happy relationship usually established between teacher and pupil.

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This happy relationship is, as the reader will doubtless guess, partly a consequence of the fact that children are often in a position to choose what they will work at. But it is also a function of the way in which pupils and teacher work together as a team in extra-curricular as well as in curricular activities. For example, children help to serve the mid-day school meal: selected older children act as monitors and prefects, and in some schools again older pupils run a sweetmeat shop. As few English headteachers have clerical assistants, children often help with clerical work such as addressing envelopes to parents or with collecting and accounting for payment for mid-day meals. In all these and in many other ways a happy team spirit builds up between pupils and teachers in many English primary and secondary schools.

If the relationship between teacher and pupil is a happy one in most English primary schools, so is the relationship between teachers and headteachers. This is a fourth circumstance which contributes to the development of child-centred education in England, for this happy relationship means in practice that a head rarely tries to confine his teachers to syllabuses which he has drawn up for them. He relies rather on members of his staff to adjust syllabuses as they think expedient, to give to them their own interpretations and their own personal emphases. In turn, as we have seen this means that teachers are in large measure free to consult the interests of their pupils. Here is a chain reaction; a headteacher trusts his staff; the staff, in intimate contact with pupils, work to flexible syllabuses which they can adjust as need or opportunity demand.

Contrary to widespread opinion a flexible, child-centred curriculum does provide opportunities for children to acquire knowledge and skills, and to develop moral qualities. Just as a flexible unwritten British constitution appears to work well enough, so does a flexible unwritten English curriculum. In one lively primary school which I visited teachers and pupils were apparently getting on quite happily with their work, though the headmistress said, "This year we (note the use of *we*) have not yet prepared syllabuses; we have to discover the needs of the children before we can do that." In another school a teacher in charge of a new class which was obviously working happily and purposefully admitted that she had no syllabus. "How could I have?" She asked, "for these children are quite different from those of last year." In most of the primary schools I visited, absence of rigid, written curricula, so far from interfering with their efficiency, appeared to promote it.

Curricula are more rigid in secondary schools in England. Generally they are organised on a subject basis. The class teacher therefore makes way for the specialist who teaches his subject and only his subject throughout a range of classes. These specialists tend to work rigidly within the boundaries of their subjects, and therefore seldom point to connections between what they teach and what their colleagues teach. A curriculum so organised offers no choices to children: it is like a narrow corridor which restricts their mental movements.

The sharp contrast which I observed between the flexibility of primary and the rigidity of secondary curricula, raised for me these two questions. First, does the flexibility of the primary curriculum make for better learning?—make for the acquisition with greater certainty and articulation of more knowledge, even if that knowledge is not organised on a subject basis?—Second, does the freer atmoshpere of the primary school produce more "rounded" persons? persons, that is, who can exercise their own initiative, make their own choices and get along with their fellows? For us in democratic countries, these are important questions. Ours is a growing democracy: what type of citizens do we really want and what kind of educational system must we therefore devise?

education today

Enrolment Drive in Orissa

To improve enrolment in Primary schools in the State the Government of Orissa have decided to launch a State-wide enrolment drive for a week which will be conducted both by official and non-official agencies. A uniform programme will be organised in every Primary school of the State by Village Drive Committees to be constituted for the purpose. The programme includes door-to-door canvassing by volunteers to persuade parents to send their wards to school, processions and rallies by students, public meetings, and cultural programmes.

* * *

Orientation Course in Basic Education

An Orientation Course in Basic Education was organised by the Directorate of Education, Delhi in March, 1960 to impart training to the Primary school teachers of the New Delhi Municipal Committee and Municipal Corporation of Delhi.

The following topics were discussed during the one-week course :—(1) principles and scope of Basic education; (2) implementation of Basic education system; (3) administrative and organisational problems concerning Basic education.

* * *

Primary Education in Himachal Pradesh

Preparations are under way in Himachal Pradesh to introduce free and compulsory education for children in the age group 6—11 years. A pilot project was started in Renuka *tehsil* as an experimental measure and about 250 new schools were opened in the Territory for the purpose.

The Administration is also reorganising the Primary and Middle schools in the Territory according to Basic pattern, which have been provided with craft material. Recently eight Middle schools have been converted into Senior Basic schools.

* * *

Primary and Basic Education in West Bengal

West Bengal Government sanctioned a scheme of establishing 18 pre-Basic schools, 205 Junior Basic schools and 40 Senior Basic schools in rural and urban areas of the State. 240 Primary schools with 480 teachers for schoolless villages in rural areas were also sanctioned.

A scheme of "Improved Accommodation for Primary School" with a total estimated cost of Rs. 35,90,781 was sanctioned by Government. Three thousand five hundred and fifty-six units of Primary schools will be benefited by this scheme. Under the scheme of "Essential Accommodation for Women Teachers," 57 units of quarters were sanctioned.

* * *

Secondary Education in Rajasthan

The Government of Rajasthan are making efforts to develop Secondary education in the State by bringing about a closer adjustment of the contents of the curriculum to individual and social needs. Stress is laid on improving the quality of education by recruiting better qualified teachers, organising pilot projects for introducing better methods of teaching and objective tests and providing better facilities for study, residence and general well-being of students.

The following table gives the State's progress in Secondary education during

the first four years of the Second Five-Year Plan:

Type of institutions	No. of institutions at the end of 1st Plan	No. of institutions at the end of 4th year of 2nd Plan	Targets proposed for 5th year of 2nd Plan
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Multipurpose Higher Secondary Schools	28	207	36
2. High Schools	245	237	7 for girls only
3. Senior Basic Schools	14	46	20
4. Middle Schools	892	1,162	86

To maintain the principle of consolidation at this selective stage of education, the process of starting more and more Multipurpose Higher Secondary schools has been arrested. The emphasis is to provide more streams to consolidate the existing Multipurpose Higher Secondary schools to make them better equipped institutions. Among the steps aimed at improving the quality of education are : introduction of terminal tests, at least three in a year, besides the half-yearly and annual examinations; maintenance of cumulative records; establishment of Science clubs in selected institutions; giving more Science courses to a large number of schools; provision of educational and vocational guidance for Multipurpose and Higher Secondary schools by establishing a State Bureau; improving the quality of the staff.

The Education Department organises each year about eight seminars for the improvement of teaching in English, Hindi, Science and Social Studies in Secondary schools as well as for toning up the general efficiency of the institutions. The Extension Services branches of two teachers' training colleges at Bikaner and Udaipur also organise forums, study groups, open-air sessions, and seminars-*cum*-workshop courses for the benefit of the teachers.

Efforts are also being made to expand girls' education in the State by providing incentives to the students and offering special facilities to the training of lady teachers.

* * *

Secondary Education in Delhi

All High schools in Delhi—both Government and Aided—are proposed to be converted into Higher Secondary schools from the session starting from July 15, 1960. This step will be in pursuance of the implementation of the scheme of having a uniform Higher Secondary system in Delhi. The total number of schools proposed to be covered under this scheme is 24.

* * *

Secondary Education in West Bengal

During the first quarter of the year, West Bengal Government sanctioned conversion of 43 Class-X schools into Class-XI schools with Humanities only. Sanction was also accorded for the conversion of 23 Class-XI schools with Humanities and 17 Class-X schools into Class-XI schools with diversified courses. Twenty-two Class-XI schools with diversified courses would also have one more additional course.

A total grant of Rs. 36,09,375 was set apart for the development of 54 schools under the scheme of "Assistance for Teaching in Science" @ Rs. 43,750 per school, and 95 schools under the scheme of "Improvement of Teaching in Existing Schools" @ Rs. 13,125 per school.

To provide residential accommodation for the teachers of Secondary schools, especially in the rural areas, 87 units of teachers' quarters were sanctioned to 67 Secondary schools costing Rs. 7,91,252. The State Government also sanctioned grants for the construction of hostels and

improvement of libraries and reading rooms in Secondary schools.

* * *

Improving Standard of English in Schools in Madras

Recently the Madras Government *accepted the proposals submitted by the* British Council for the conduct of a campaign for the improvement of the standard of teaching of English in schools. The salient features of the scheme are:—

(*i*) A task force of five Senior Officers and ten Junior Officers will conduct primary training courses, each of three weeks' duration for a group of 50 teachers drawn from educational institutions in a local area. Three such training courses will be run, one in each of the second, third and fourth months of the scheme. The first month will be spent in selecting junior members of the task force, training them and preparing for the running of the primary course. The junior members will continue to receive training from the senior members during the running of the primary courses and will also help the senior members in the running of the courses. Ultimately the junior members will themselves become senior members of other task forces.

(*ii*) From out of the 50 trainees in each primary training course, 30 will be chosen and divided into six groups of five each. Each of these groups will then conduct secondary training course of fairly long duration for teachers of English in its local area. These courses will be conducted over week-ends and for short spells at a time so that the normal *working of the* schools in the area will not be disturbed. Each secondary course will be for roughly 30 trainees.

(*iii*) The fourth week of every month in which the primary training courses are run will be spent by the members of the task force in preparing for the next course. At the end of the first primary course, one of the senior members of the task force and two of the junior members will detach themselves from the main task force and will carry on follow-up work which will involve supervision and guidance of the secondary courses run by the trainees of the primary courses.

(*iv*) At the beginning of the fifth month an assessment of the working of the scheme will be undertaken and decisions taken as to the continuance of the scheme and possible *modifications in its working.* During this month the primary course trainees running the secondary courses will also come back to the headquarters of the task force for conferring with and receiving guidance from the members of the latter.

* * *

Refresher Course for English Teachers in Bihar

Bihar Education Department in collaboration with the British Council, conducted a refresher course for training English teachers of State Basic and Middle schools, in February this year. The course lasted for three weeks. The estimated cost of the course was Rs. 3,700. This was aimed at improving the standard of teaching English which was made compulsory for classes VI and VII from January, 1959.

Training of Teachers in West Bengal

Under a State-sponsored scheme the Government of West Bengal accorded sanction for the establishment of three new Junior Basic Training colleges with 360 seats, one new Junior Basic Training college for 60 trainees under the Refugee Rehabilitation Scheme, and one new Basic Training college for 60 under-graduate women.

* * *

Vocational and Educational Guidance in Mysore

A Bureau for Vocational and Educational Guidance has been set up at the Directorate of Education, Mysore. It is conducting a short term course at Bangalore for training 30 Higher Secondary teachers at a cost of Rs. 8,600. The Bureau will conduct such courses regularly.

* * *

Seminar of the Heads and Educational Officers in Delhi

A one-week seminar of the Heads of schools and Educational Officers was organised in Delhi in March, 1960.

The topics discussed at the seminar were :—(1) testing and evaluation in school examinations; (2) high incidence of failures in the final examination—cures and remedies; (3) the measures to improve standards of attainment in Secondary schools; (4) library work and developing reading habits among students; and (5) home work and correction work.

* * *

State Education Officers Meet at Lucknow

The State Education Officers' Association of Uttar Pradesh met at Lucknow in a two-day session. It discussed and adopted resolutions in matters concerning ways and means to bring about quality instruction, to establish more effective and useful human relationship between the teacher and the taught, to give better facilities to educational leaders, to introduce new policies and execute new programmes and to encourage educational workers at all levels to take initiative in respective areas where decentralization will be most desirable.

One of the important features of the session was the participation of retired officers and their active contribution to discussions. An important decision taken was to start zonal branches of the Association with regional headquarters as their centres.

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U. P. State Educational Exhibition

U.P. State Educational Exhibition, the fifth of its kind, was held this year in Varanasi. The stalls exhibited children's manufacture of toys, models, and charts of wood, metal, plasticine, clay and other material, working models of machines and scientific apparatuses, children's works of art, productions of industrial craft classes, children's journals and rare educational literature, and results of researches carried out in various school subjects, Adult education and Physical education techniques and in the history of freedom movement. The exhibition attracted many visitors including parents, teachers, legislators, educationists and school children.

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Seventh Meeting of the National Council for Rural Higher Education

The seventh meeting of the National Council for Rural Higher Education was inaugurated by Dr. K. L. Shrimali, Union Minister of Education, on March 23, 1960 at New Delhi. In his inaugural address, the Education Minister stressed on the definite and specialised role of the students of Rural Higher education institutes in the development schemes of the country.

The National Council examined the employment position of graduates and diploma holders who had passed out of the 11 Rural Institutes in the country. It was noted that almost all the students in engineering and agricultural courses and about 50% in the Diploma course had found employment. To widen their scope of employment, the members recommended that each institute should set up an agency which would collect information regarding employment opportunities, and work as a liaison between the students and employing agencies.

The Council agreed to the setting up of small committees to conduct effective assessment of the various technical courses conducted in the Rural Institutes. The appointment of such committees, it was pointed out, would help maintain suitable standards as well as evaluate the success of the institutes in terms of the aims of the scheme.

Members of the Council approved the programme for seminars and workshops in home science, extension in social welfare, cooperation, social education, agricultural education and civil and rural engineering.

It was agreed that short-term courses for non-officials should be introduced in Rural Institutes in cooperation with the Ministry of Community Development and Cooperation for the training of workers at *Panchayat* and District levels.

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THE FOREIGN SCENE

Vacation Courses for Teachers in U. K.

The Ministry of Education, U. K. has arranged short vacation courses for teachers to widen their field of interest and knowledge.

Space exploration, astronomy, marine navigation, photolithography, radio and television servicing and the welfare of overseas students—these are some of the subjects listed for Easter and summer holiday courses.

A course on "lightweight" camping will take teachers into remote areas of the Lake District. This course is designed to give experience of bivouacing and mobile camping in small groups and varied types of terrain. Also during the Easter holidays, secondary school teachers will be on a course of nautical studies, which includes marine chartwork and small-boat sailing on the tidal reaches of the Thames. A summer course in archaeology will find teachers busy on a "dig" in Kent, with opportunities for special interest studies of their own on coins, pottery and inscriptions

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Education in Albania

At the end of World War II, Albania had only 655 schools with a total attendance of 58,200. Today, there are 2,754 schools and nearly 2,30,000 Primary, Secondary and College students, not to mention evening and correspondence classes.

These facts were stressed by the Albanian Vice-Minister of Education and Culture in a recent interview. "In 1945", he said, "nearly 85 per cent of the population of Albania were still illiterate. Nowadays, there is scarcely a man or woman under 40 who cannot read or write."

Started during the war, in the underground, the campaign against illiteracy has developed on a broad scale, particularly since 1949. Special schools, study groups and evening classes were set up in towns and rural areas. Often parents attended the same school as their children, the latter occupying the building during the day, the former in the evening after work.

"Four years of primary schooling have been compulsory for some time", the Minister added, "and our immediate object now is to extend the period of compulsory education to seven years for the whole country. For this we need teachers, and they are being trained in ten special colleges : 9,000 teachers graduated from these colleges during 1957-58 as against 1,600 in 1938."

As regards vocational training, attendance figures have almost doubled in the last eight years, rising from 3,815 in 1950 to 6,621 in 1958. There are now 13 technical schools offering courses in 35 different subjects.

In higher education, the National University of Tirana, created since the war, offers courses in 15 subjects.

A special effort is also being made to develop workers' education. A network of evening schools and correspondence courses has been established throughout the country to help workers improve their position professionally and extend their general education. Twenty thousand workers are registered for these courses. Special leave with pay is granted to enable workers to sit for examinations. (Unesco).

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Study Abroad

The new edition of *Study Abroad*, Unesco's international handbook on educational exchange, which includes statistical surveys showing the distribution of students studying abroad, shows that there were 1,80,000 foreign students in institutions of higher

education throughout the world during 1957-58—an increase of 15,000 over the previous year.

Six countries accounted for more than three-fifths of the total number of foreign students: United States—43,193, France—17,176, Federal Republic of Germany—13,916, United Kingdom—11,276, U.S.S.R—11,266, Argentina—9,267. Substantial increases in the number of foreign students enrolled were recorded in the Federal Republic of Germany, in Austria, and in Switzerland.

A table shows the countries of origin of foreign students studying in 18 selected countries. Foremost among these are: Greece—6,609, the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic—6,255, Canada—6,215, U.S.A.—5,795, India—4,966, the Republic of China and the Chinese People's Republic—4,929, Korea—4,849.

The handbook lists 90,000 individual opportunities for fellowships, scholarships and travel grants for study in 1959-60. (Unesco)

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W.C.O.T.P. Asian Regional Conference

What teachers in Asia can do to maintain and improve the physical and mental health of the children entrusted to their care was the principal subject of the Asian Regional Conference sponsored by the World Confederation of Organisations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP). The Conference was held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaya in April, 1960.

The meeting discussed procedures and programmes for a nine-man Asian Regional Council whose establishment was approved in principle by the WCOTP World Assembly last August.

The Conference examined the relations between WCOTP and Unesco at the international level, and between each organisation and the National Commission for Unesco in its country; a report on salary negotiations machinery; implementation of a professional code for teachers adopted at the 1959 WCOTP Assembly; and the work of WCOTP subject matter committees.

* * *

High School Curricula in the United States

The† school system in the United States represents one logical structure. It is one continuous ladder from the first grade of the Primary school on through the last year of the Secondary school, when the High school diploma is awarded. All the children stay together in the same school, the Secondary school being comprehensive in its curriculum.

There are no large educational traffic stations, as in European school systems, at which the moving masses of children have to be examined, sorted and parted for different types of Secondary schools. In the United States the one Secondary school is "the common school" for all, just as is the Primary school. The right to attend is not subject to examinations.

The total number of years of schooling from first grade through High school is twelve, the child entering at 6 and graduating at 17 or 18. Education is by law a State responsibility, not a Federal responsibility in the United States, and each State has its own compulsory school attendance law. The common national pattern is compulsory education until age 16 or until high school graduation, whichever comes first.

Special High schools, such as commercial and technical High schools, which place greater emphasis on a specialised curriculum than is possible in the usual High school, are few in number.

The pattern of the 12-year educational system is: six years' Elementary (or Primary), three years' Junior High school, and three years' Senior High school.

The pattern of education is uniform throughout the nation. There is a national synthesis of curriculum.

†Condensed from an article by Harold Spears made available by Unesco Clearing House, Paris.

The unique feature of the Secondary school curriculum in the United States is the selection of subjects by the students. Since it is a common school for all, approximately half of the student's curriculum represents required subjects which all the students take and about half of this curriculum is made up of subjects he selects himself to serve his own immediate interests and his future college or occupational plans.

The existence of the common comprehensive High school with its elective system means that curriculum revision is not limited to adult planning. The students themselves, in their election of subjects bring about a change in curriculum, emphasis in one area increasing and another decreasing over a given period of time. The elective system has created the counsellor's position in the Secondary schools in recent years.

Some of the current developments in the High school curriculum are :

1. A decided emphasis is there upon the study of science and mathematics. Curriculum planners in the schools are revising the more traditional science course of physics and chemistry to include new knowledge and scientific fields of endeavour.

2. There is a growing concern for "the gifted" student, which is evident both in the literature and in school practice. In a few States there is emerging the practice of permitting brighter students to leave the Secondary school and enter the college ahead of time, examinations or special courses being provided to help in the selection.

3. Another trend, which began some time ago and is continuing unabated, is the tendency to balance the so-called cultural courses of the High school with those representing the immediate application of learnings in life situations faced by the learners. A good example is driver education. So menacing are the automobile accidents, the typical High school is now teaching students how to drive properly.

4. The core programme again is popular as a concept. Its basic feature is the integration of two or more related subjects ordinarily taught separately. A typical example is American history and American literature.

5. A pronounced trend, which has great curriculum implications, is the tendency for youth to remain in school longer.

6. This tendency to extend the education of the average youth is effecting a gradual curriculum change. Since vocational and other occupational training should be offered as near as possible to the leaving time of the students in question with longer tenure in school there is a gradual shifting of this type of course upward on the grade ladder. Such courses once offered at 10th grade are now more likely to come at 11th or 12th grade, and in these school systems with the additional 13th and 14th grades such training may well be shifted to these years. The gaps below are being filled with more courses in general education.

7. Another development in respect of curriculum in the Secondary school, as well as in the Elementary school, in the United States is the growing popularity of curriculum planning through in-service training programmes. It is a cooperative study of curriculum content and methods of instruction by teaching and the administrative staffs in an organised manner.

8. In curriculum study is also noted the growing popularity of the consideration of "how to teach" along with "what to teach". Since the Secondary school pattern is that of a common comprehensive High school, there is the continued challenge not to lose the individual pupil in the mass operation.

9. Evident in a number of school districts is a combined school-work programme for High school seniors, often called the 4-4 programme, four hours in school and four out on the job.

10. Finally, a good amount of stress is also laid on extra-curricular activities.

In conclusion, the curriculum trends in Secondary education in the United States reflect acceptance of, and gradual change within, the national pattern of the existing Secondary school. There is no indication that this basic structure of one continuous school ladder for all will be questioned in providing curriculum changes. There are no radical proposals or practices in the offing.

book reviews

Iqbal—His Art and Thought: By S.A. Vahid; Published by John Murray, London; 1959

This book is a revised, enlarged and considerably improved edition of Mr. Vahid's earlier book with the same title, published in 1944 by Sheikh Mohd. Ashraf of Lahore, well-known publisher of Islamic literature. It sets out to study with care certain important aspects of the ideas as well as the poetic art of Iqbal, who is easily one of the most significant thinkers and poets of this century. A number of books on Iqbal have appeared during the last two decades since his death, but a majority of them are not of great merit. Mr. Vahid's book, however, makes a useful addition to the growing literature on the subject and should be welcomed by all students of Iqbal's poetry and philosophy.

In this book, the author has given a brief but interpretative biography of Iqbal—in which passing reference is also made to his role as an educationist—discussed his central idea of the nature of the human ego and its development, traced the sources of his inspiration and examined the relationship of his philosophy with important thinkers of the East and the West by whom he had been specially influenced. In the latter part, he has examined, with sensitiveness, the different expressions of his poetic art as well as his prose writings. In addition to chapters on his *lyrics* and *mathnavis* which were included in the first edition, new chapters have been added in the present edition dealing with his satire, elegies, chronograms and quatrains. They are rather sketchy and some of them are not really significant. But they make the treatment of his poetry more complete.

Mr. Vahid has brought out clearly how Iqbal links up with artistic delicacy the discussion of contemporary problems with eternal values so that his message is vital for today as well as the distant morrow. This is a difficult artistic challenge, but as the author points out with reference to his *magnum opus Javid Nama* "He does all this so artistically that the great epic does not contain a single line in which heaviness of thought has, in any way, infected the verse." This may well be taken as generally applicable to the whole of his poetry. He has a liveliness and originality of mind which, combined with vivacity of expression, shields his poetry from the danger of becoming 'versified philosophy'.

The author brings out, in the treatment of his ideas, both the special Muslim context of his poetry as well as its universal appeal, to which Tagore paid his tribute on the occasion of his death :—

> "The death of Sir Mohd. Iqbal creates a void in literature that, like a martyr's wound, will take a very long time to heal. India, whose place in the world is too narrow, can ill-afford to miss a poet whose poetry had such a universal value."

It is not always possible to agree with the literary judgements of the author. Iqbal had a very keen and thoughtful mind and whatever he wrote—whether in poetry or prose, in Urdu or Persian or English—naturally bore the impress of his mind. But I have the feeling that Mr. Vahid overrates the literary quality of his prose writings. Also it would be difficult to agree that his Persian is the "latest Persian to which no Persian can take exception". Iqbal was steeped in a *classical* Persian which he wielded as a medium with grace and power. But surely no Iranian will regard it as an example of modern Persian.

The author has given many quotations from his Urdu and Persian poetry as well

as the prose writings, together with their translations in English. These would certainly add to the value of the book for those who do not know the original languages. But the translations, as the author frankly admits, may not do justice to the original. I am afraid, in many cases, they do not. When the next edition comes out, I hope, the author will revise them further so as to convey not merely the rich content but also the beauty and poetic flavour of the original.

K.G.S.

Issues in University Education : Edited by Charles Frankel; Published by Harper & Brothers, New York; 1959; Price $3.95; pp. 175

The volume is a cooperative work of ten eminent educationists and scholars closely connected with universities and institutions of higher education in the United States of America. Apart from the stimulating introduction written by President Paul J. Braisted of the Edward W. Hazen Foundation and the excellent summing up of the issues in American higher education in the concluding chapter by Professor Charles Frankel, the editor of the book, it contains eight essays dealing with a wide range of topics including the background of modern universities, changing philosophies of education, the role of science and technology, democratisation of educational opportunities, the making of the scholar, his responsibilities and freedoms in the modern set up, and the relation of the university to the community and to the students. Written by eight distinguished scholars, *viz.*, J. Robert Oppenheimer, Richard McKeon, Robert Ulich, John Hope Franklin, Robert B. Brode, Irwin T. Sanders, Robert M. Strozier and Sigmund Neumann, the essays distil the experience of scholars who have studied and worked in American universities and colleges and had thus ample opportunities of observing the trend of higher education in and outside America. They have not merely described where American education now stands but have also raised questions about the goal of its future development.

The questions that have been raised by the authors of this volume reflect three fundamental issues which have to be faced squarely not only in the U.S.A. but also in other countries of the world. The first is the problem of harmonising the disparate traditions out of which higher education of the present day has sprung and of domesticating them within a mobile and democratic society. The second is the problem of finding adequate moral and financial support that will permit the maintenance of freedom and standard of scholarship. The third is the problem of establishing a sound relationship between a technologically oriented culture and the institutions and ideals of pure science and disinterested inquiry.

Education has, in fact, been the principal instrument of the democratisation of life in America as elsewhere in the world today. A larger proportion of the people everywhere is coming to believe that the right to a higher education is included within the general right to the pursuit of happiness. According to the prevalent trend of admissions in colleges, the American colleges within the next two decades will have to take care of about twice as many students as they have done in the past. It is certainly an admitted fact that any society will be richer if it can give greater opportunities to the intelligent elements of its members and there is a growing conviction that every individual ought to have as much schooling as his talents permit. Wherever this conviction is growing, as in India, it is creating educational problems. But the world certainly would not be better without such problems.

The changes in human ideas and behaviour are also bringing changes in the nature and type of the college student in America. According to a report of the Commission on the College Student of the American Council on Education published in October 1958, the type of student who used to be regarded as an exception is now more and more the rule. Forty per cent of all American undergraduates are now more than 21 years old. Since 1953 the number of undergraduates between 25 and 30 years of age has increased by 47 per cent, while those who are 18 or 19 years old have increased by only 30 per cent. Twenty-two per cent of all American college students are married, and according to one estimate 40 per cent

of all undergraduates in America earn more than half their college expenses. No wonder, therefore, that educationists in America feel that the Anglo-Saxon ideal of a protected and insulated educational environment makes less sense now than it once did in America.

These essays have a special importance to the scholar and educationist in India. The ideal of higher education, the type of education that will most suit the Indian environment, the responsibilities and freedom of the scholar, the democratisation of educational opportunities, the position of the university in relation to the community, the concept of a university's services to the making of a student, the size and quality of higher education, the question of general education, the dramatic rise in the number of persons seeking higher education, the mission and functions of universities, the problem of finding moral and financial support for universities, the academic freedom of universities, the student behaviour, the role of a university in dealing with the problem of tension, etc., are some of the many problems which face the Indian universities today. An understanding of the approach to similar problems in America may help those who are now shaping things in India, for, human nature, in spite of the differences of time and space, is essentially the same. There are, of course, wide and very great differences in respect of resources and opportunities between a highly industrialised country and an under-developed country. But these are differences mainly of degrees. The experience of scholars and educationists in other countries is sure to be of value to those who are planning the development of university and collegiate education in India. The essays have given a masterly analysis of the problems in America and may show the way to the realisation of the ideal propounded by Rabindranath Tagore (which is referred to in the very first sentence of the introduction) so that universities may be places.

> Where words come out from the depth of truth;
>
> Where tireless striving stretches its arms towards perfection;
>
> Where the clear stream of reason has not lost its way into the dreary desert sand of dead habit;
>
> Where the mind is led forward into ever-widening thought and action.

SUKUMAR BHATTACHARYA

The Function of Teaching : Edited by A. V. Judges; Published by Faber & Faber Ltd., London; 1959

The title of this book will not bear too pedagogical an interpretation for, it is, in fact, a symposium on the wider aims, purposes and functions of education and their consequences for society. A philosophy of education arises generally from two sources—the teacher, who from his experience and experiments with teaching, formulates certain observations and generalizations, and the philosopher who thinks about man, nature and society and from whose views on these follow certain incidental implications for education. It is from this latter source, largely, that this symposium is drawn. The thinkers on whom comment has been made comprise a poet, a sociologist, a theologian, two psychologists, a mystic and a divine—namely, T. S. Eliot, Karl Mannheim, Jacques Maritain, Martin Buber, Sigmund Freud, William James and William Temple. The commentators themselves are men of some distinction in education and letters.

The seven essays interpret and present views that differ in focus and conception sometimes slightly, sometimes radically. Eliot and Mannheim are both concerned with the 'democratization' of society, the change that has resulted or is anticipated to result from the spread of education to all categories of people; from this concern they emerge as taking up opposite positions. In Eliot, this social change arouses only doubt and pessimism. As Lord Rusholme admirably puts it, 'the free extension of education, which to many of us seems a self-evident good that everyone both needs and desires is met by Eliot with pessimism and doubt'. Mannheim, on the contrary, sees this change as inevitable and accepts it. At heart, he also seeks stability, but he finds a solution in a dynamic social equilibrium to be achieved by controlling and guiding

the inevitable change through social planning and education. Mannheim, no egalitarian, believes in the selection of leaders, but is concerned that opportunity should equal ability, irrespective of social origin.

While Eliot and Mannheim are taken up with the structure of society, Maritain whose Neo-Thomism is not only "credited by faith and empowered by piety" but also "constructed by reason", is appalled by the disintegration in the personality of the modern man and the vacuum created in the Western world by a bankruptcy of faith, which vacuum Marxism has stepped in to fill by deifying matter. Maritain's humanism seeks to reintegrate the human personality. His conceptions of both society and education are personalist and pluralist. Society, for him, rests on the natural law and the natural law of human nature is a moral law, and education is "the self-development of human plasticity into an integrated character under the influence of an ideal". This education is a liberal education "directed towards wisdom, centred on the humanities, aiming to develop in the people the capacity to think correctly and to enjoy truth and beauty", and is an education for freedom. Coming to the methodology of education, Maritain advocates self-activity on the part of the learner and stresses the role of play. Here, one notes (perhaps not with much surprise) that philosophies which are poles apart, like Maritain's Neo-Thomism and Dewey's Pragmatism, often strike common ground in educational methodology and practice.

Buber, on the other hand, with his almost mystical vision of education as an intuitive, insightful relation between man and man and man and god, considers at some length the teacher and pupil. Almost equal in its attention to the teacher and pupil is the chapter on Freud by Prof. Ben Morris. Ben Morris has discussed Freud's theory as a basis for religion and morality, and from this education emerges as a dynamic process, the aim of which is the attainment by the individual of a mature, creative self.

A little more may be said about Eliot for he stands on one side by himself, apart from the other six, in an important and fundamental matter. He alone rejects the two ideals in education that most people today, however different their conceptions of man, society and god may be, and however divergent the aims they may set for education, commonly subscribe to : the wish to give to every child the chance to develop his talents to the full, irrespective of his social background and to make children develop into better citizens of a democratic community. Eliot is alarmed at the threat which the lowering of standards (that has accompanied the spread of education), the increasing specialization and the anticipated displacement of "classes" by the professional and the expert "elite" pose to the different levels of culture which obtain in society, and for the preservation of which established authority, tradition, and families or groups of families observing an unbroken continuity from generation to generation are essential. Thus alarmed, he argues (somewhat perversely, to most of us) that easy availability of education will disorganise society and debase education. While his alarm is not unreasonable and even his proposition that education should be restricted to a selected group may find sympathy with many, surely his position becomes irreconcilable to all who believe in democracy when he goes on to maintain that this group should be selected not on the basis of ability, but on the basis of social class. Yet he has frequent streaks of uncanny insight into the processes and techniques of education and his views as to its place and function in society provide a provocative challenge.

JAIPAL NANGIA

The Teacher and His Pupils: By Hubert J. Byrne; (Adapted by N. V. Manuel) ; Published by Oxford University Press, Bombay; 1960; Price Rs. 3·00; pp. 179.

The Primary school teacher in India is expected to carry a load of responsibility of a weight, extent and nature well beyond the capacities of a great proportion of those induced to enter the profession today. Anything which helps to clarify and simplify its nature and to equip teachers to bear the burden with greater ease is, therefore, to be welcomed. In this practical and handy little textbook for Primary teachers, the author has successfully covered many important aspects of the art of teaching.

Beginning with the aims of education, the relationship between teacher and child and the importance of preparing lessons, Mr. Byrne goes on to describe briefly the elements of educational psychology and shows how a knowledge of it may be applied to teaching methods. The bulk of the book is concerned with teaching methods and the kind of classroom behaviour appropriate to a good teacher, with many useful hints on discipline, classroom organisation, lesson planning and ways of handling the numerous little difficulties that beset a Primary teacher in his daily work. The book also deals with topics such as character formation, habit development, setting and marking examinations, objective-type tests, syllabus and time-table construction, methods of study and health education. Perhaps the most useful parts of the book to the teacher, in training or afterwards, are the questions and suggestions for discussion and practical work given at the end of every chapter and the exhaustive self-test questionnaire at the end of the book. Equally valuable are the suggestions for self-criticism and a marking scheme for the self-evaluation of lessons, which should be welcomed by every sincere teacher anxious to improve himself.

Couched in simple and lucid prose, the book is charmingly illustrated with amusing and apt line drawings by the author himself. These not only drive home every important point but serve as examples of the variety and the interest that can be provided in every lesson with no more equipment than blackboard and chalk. This is altogether a fine textbook for the Primary school teacher; the fault, if any, lies in its being perhaps too ambitious in relation to the background and equipment of the average teacher. A further defect is the lack of a good bibliography which might stimulate and guide the enthusiastic teacher interested in furthering his knowledge or improving his technique. However, if every teacher were to read and profit by this book alone it would undoubtedly be a good thing for Primary education in India.

MINA SWAMINATHAN

What is General Education: By Dr. S. Abid Husain; Published by Asia Publishing House, Bombay; 1959; pp. 82

The monograph on General Education by Dr. Abid Husain, the architect of the Aligarh pattern of General Education, is, undoubtedly, a fascinating study for all those interested in the theory and practice of General Education. The writer begins with a consideration of the purpose of General Education in the broader perspective of the purpose of Education. He defines Education as 'a process through which the intellectual and practical capacities of an individual are developed so as to make him a cultured person as well as a useful member of society'. The object of General Education, according to him, is 'the development of right attitudes, the cultivation of right habits of thought, feeling and action, and the building up of an integrated personality'. Thus he sees no *antithesis between the two*. But he makes no secret of the fact that the present system of education has failed to deliver the goods and hence it needs be supplemented with General Education.

The next important aspect considered by him is the problem of adjustment of General Education programme with the existing pattern of education in colleges and universities. His main recommendation in this connection is the preparation of a balanced course of General and special Education. He is also of the opinion that compulsory courses in Communication should be made part and parcel of the General Education programme. He further suggests that the present practice of prescribing three optionals of equal weightage may be replaced by one main and two subsidiary optionals. It is true no doubt that in order to achieve best results from General Education and in order to make Education more effective some such reorganization of the existing pattern of University education is essential.

The syllabus of General Education drawn up by Dr. Husain comprises basic courses in Natural Science, Social Science and Humanities. A perusal of the detailed syllabus might give the reader

the impression that it is too much theoretical and knowledge-oriented and hence too heavy for the students. As a matter of fact in General Education knowledge is not important in itself but is a means to an end. The main object of the syllabus of General Education according to the learned writer is 'the building up of an integrated personality well adjusted with the natural, social and cultural environment'. This is in keeping with the views of the University Education Commission and the General Education Study Team (1956) and is also endorsed by the eminent educationists of the country. The objectives pointed out above can only be achieved through a basic curricular programme as visualized here.

Other problems considered are provision of suitable reading material, audio-visual aids and improved methods of teaching. He deals at length with the philosophical problem of the aims of teaching method for General Education and stresses the need for a special method of teaching, *viz.*, the discussion method. In this connection it may be pointed out that mere use of audio-visual materials and the discussion method is not sufficient. Lasting results can only be achieved if in the teaching of different branches of learning the special techniques of each of these branches are fully employed, *e.g.*, laboratory experience in the teaching of physical sciences, studio experience in the teaching of fine arts and social experiences (through social surveys and service projects) in the teaching of social sciences.

Last but not the least important is his suggestion regarding the position of the teaching unit of General Education *vis-a-vis* the Departments of Studies. He considers two patterns—one being a small nucleus staff entrusted with the teaching of different areas to specialists in those areas the other being a separate Department of General Education with its own special staff. He, however, disapproves of the former pattern and favours the latter for all those institutions which provide an integrated syllabus like the one suggested by him. His disapproval of the former pattern is borne out by the Aligarh experience where at first it was adopted but had to be given up owing to its inefficacy as a means of creating *rapport* between the specialist teachers and thousands of students whom they had to lecture. According to the other pattern which was later adopted at Aligarh the teachers have been assigned one or two sections of a class and they are entrusted with the responsibility for administering the whole programme of General Education at least in one area. Another point worth noting is his suggestion for establishing a Faculty of Education comprising the Departments of Education and General Education. It goes without saying that the establishment of a Faculty as visualized by him will go a long way in ensuring better functioning of the General Education programme.

Dr. Abid Husain is to be congratulated for presenting an authentic interpretation of General Education and a reasonably acceptable and practicable solution of the problems of organization and administration of General Education courses. The monograph will undoubtedly be an asset to all those interested in the practical problems of the implementation of the scheme of General Education in Indian universities.

S. M. ZIAUDDIN ALAVI

Authority, Responsibility and Education : By R.S. Peters; Published by George Allen and Unwin, London; 1959; Price 12 sh. 6 d; pp. 137

One frequently comes across the complaint that social philosophy has not kept pace with the emergence of the modern social and political order. The fast pace of industrialisation and the changing face of the State has already dismantled the old social order and traditional values of life. The result is a sort of crisis in the mind of the individual and the life of the community—particularly in the 'advanced' societies of the West. In the book under review, the author has taken upon himself the task of analysing certain basic though elusive concepts like 'authority', 'morality', 'responsibility' and 'education'. There can be no quick answers to these problems

but the author has, by the application of the analytical techniques of modern philosophy, clarified a lot of dead wood surrounding these concepts. His treatment is scientific and the ideas are refreshing.

The book, which is based upon a number of talks delivered by the author, is divided into three parts. In Part I the attention of the reader is drawn to some of the furrowed features of authority's changing face. The author describes the modern society as the "fatherless society", where trust, faith, obedience—all these attitudes appropriate to authority—have either been shrugged off or dissipated in a diluted form towards some central synthetic substance. To fill in the void have emerged two important factors, *viz.*, morality and science. Of course, morality has lost its traditional content and like science, it is also subjected to the test of rationality. While conceding the advantages of the rational approach to the question of authority, the author laments its unintended consequences in relation to the structure and exercise of authority in family. In Part II, the author has described the contemporary malaise, which shows itself in the denial of responsibility based on half-digested theories about the cause of actions and standards. The author deprecates the tendency of believing that once we can point out to a cause for our action, we can use it as a defence for all our actions. This is the negation of the very basis of responsibility. In Part III of the book, the author has tried to answer the question 'What should be the aim of the educator in the rapidly changing world?' The author has not unnecessarily indulged himself in the controversy whether education is more concerned with intellect or with moral virtues. According to him the conflict has more to do with procedure than with aims of education. As he has succinctly put it, "in the sphere both of intellect and character it is the manner that maketh a man."

One may not agree with all the views of the author but one has to agree with the publishers, when they claim that the book "will contribute something towards the clear-headedness of commonsense people."

R. K. MISRA

Teaching the Language Arts : By Willard F. Tidyman & Marguerite Butterfield; Published by McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York; 1959

This is a stimulating book for teachers entrusted with the care of small boys and girls and their development in the language arts.

Language art is a new term that has come into use during the last few years. Language arts include home and school situations, attitudes, abilities and skills and language experiences.

Language experiences may be divided into oral communication, listening, written communication, dramatization, choral thinking and creative experiences. Higher up in the scale come specific study and research.

Attitudes, abilities and skills have been sub-divided into hand-writing, spelling, written mechanics, speech, grammar, usage, sentences, vocabulary, organisation, content and lastly, attitudes. The book is a skilful accumulation of experiences arranged under these heads.

The book can be profitably used by language teachers who have to arrive at an understanding of the basic principles of the arts of language. These principles concern the place that language occupies in the growth and development of the child and the processes that facilitate this growth. They also concern the differentiation of work to meet individual differences as well as the techniques and procedures essential to the implementation of a detailed and concrete day-to-day programme.

The primary functions of language are clearly defined as communication, self-expression and thinking.

Command of language is an important factor in the development of the total personality of the child. It gives confidence,

satisfaction and security in meeting many live situations.

The concept of language as a learning task is a complex of inter-related and inter-dependent experiences and elements in which growth proceeds simultaneously but in varying degrees, dependent on points of particular emphasis and interest. The teacher's job in handling various elements is to direct growth in a single element or ability while keeping it in its proper relationship to other abilities and to the total language situation of which it is a part.

When immediate physical needs have been met and a degree of maturity reached, the child becomes absorbed in the intriguing task of making the acquaintance of a great variety of things. Asking questions is the characteristic type of language activity at this stage. "The three-year old asked 376 questions during the day." In enquiry the emphasis shifts from use of language for communication to the use of language for thinking.

Another kind of language experience which begins to take shape early is dramatic play. Words accompany actions.

Growth in performing an increasing variety of language experiences is paralleled by growth in the component abilities and skills. Factors in growth are maturation and stimulation by experience. Maturation concerns the natural development of speech functions and processes of thinking.

Training children in language is training in living, in understanding and in getting along with people. A rich environment of varied experiences is essential to good language development.

The teacher should attempt to set up a programme of work that is consistent with natural order in the development of experiences, abilities and skills. Those are to be adjusted to capacity. Problems are to be recognized as characteristic of a particular age grade or maturity level.

The book will be of use particularly for teachers of English teaching children whose mother-tongue is English, as all examples are derived from the experiences and practices of children and teachers whose mother-tongue is English. Teachers of Hindi and other Indian languages will do well to collect and systematize their experiences of teaching Hindi and specific problems that are connected therewith. The development of a child can be best carried through with the help of its mother-tongue.

RAGHU VIRA

White and Coloured : By Michael Banton; Published by Jonathan Cape, London, 1959; Price 21sh; pp. 223

The English were one of the most homogeneous nations in the world and had no minority problem. Many British authors could, therefore, point an accusing finger at other nations, write learned treatises on the treatment meted out to minorities in India, United States, South Africa, etc. and with a highly superior attitude suggest solutions for these problems.

The wheel has turned full circle. Today Britain faces a minority problem—the minority consisting of "coloured" people, mainly from the British West Indies and a few from India and Pakistan.

These coloured citizens do not receive fair treatment at the hands of the White majority. Some time ago, we read of race riots not in the Southern States of the United States but in Britain ! What were the causes for this strained relationship between the two races? Part of the answer is found in this book.

Banton starts with an analysis of definitions in Part I. In Part II, he gives a historical account of the position of the coloured people in Britain. He describes fully some of the absurd theories put forward by reputed scientists during certain periods for considering coloured people as an inferior race and how these theories have been exploded by scientists and sociologists of a later date. In Part III, the present situation is described and in Part IV, certain fundamental propositions are put forward by the author.

The author suggests that to a great extent, the prejudice against coloured labour is of a local nature; that local chapters of National Trade Unions might under the mistaken notion of being deprived of employment opportunities at a later date, be prejudiced against the introduction or extension of employment opportunities for coloured labour. He also suggests that National Trade Unions and employers can, by adopting a positive attitude, overcome the prejudice of the local community in this respect.

The author also points out that to a considerable extent, the conflict between the White and Coloured peoples in Britain may be due to sexual jealousy *i.e.* that many of the White people are afraid of the competition of coloured peoples in securing the attention of the female sex. It is not clear why there should be such a widespread fear since it is a well-known fact that there are more women in Britain than men. It would appear that this is one place where statistics cannot give the answer and that psychology can be the only science which can find solutions. While there is really no reason for such a fear, it is an admitted fact that such a fear does really prevail among a large section of the population.

The author has suggested that while colour prejudice does exist, it is not as widespread as is believed. Further, it would also appear that colour prejudice, particularly among landladies, hotel-keepers etc., might exist more because of the fear of loss of 'white' custom—a fear which has been proved more imaginary than real—rather than because they were really prejudiced against the coloured man. It would appear from this inquiry that many of the subjects interviewed thought that others were more prejudiced than themselves. This conclusion though new to the lay-man, is not surprising to trained sociologists who have come across many instances where people behave in a particular way, not because they themselves really desire to behave in that way, but because they are afraid of what others would think of their actions and hence adopt an attitude which they think is in harmony with the supposed attitude of the community. Banton's final question as to why coloured people should so often be shabbily treated when the vast majority of individual Britons are favourably disposed towards them, is a fair statement of the whole problem. The answer, as I can see it, is that the British people while not individually prejudiced are prejudiced as a group and this is a paradox which the statistician and the sociologist have many times come across.

Banton has analysed the problem itself but has refrained from suggesting solutions for the problem. Legal sanctions and an education campaign in the schools for the young and through the press, radio and television for the adult groups would help solve the problem. Perhaps the author will discuss this in another volume.

This book is a very worthy contribution for answering questions which are on everybody's lips. Banton has made a thorough and impartial study of the problem and for this reason, it is especially commended to students of Sociology, Economics and Political Science.

KAMESWARA RAU

Discovering Music with Young Children : By Eunice Bailey; Published by Methuen and Co. Ltd, London

The core of the idea underlying modern teaching is that growth is spontaneous and can achieve a national flowering if guided by its own force at every stage of development and in each field of knowledge. This demands of the teacher a fine appraisal of individual talent in each sphere of children's activity so as to sensitively construct the teaching situation for conscious creativeness.

In this book Eunice Bailey discards all effete and conventional procedures of teaching music to young children and conceives her method afresh from the above directive.

She starts from the beginning on a voyage of exploration, and having discovered the child, wanders with him in the wonderland of sounds and sound instruments to discover their potentiality for expressing his inner feelings and emotional experiences.

With keen insight into children's instincts and consummate craftsmanship in teaching

she directs their imagery and rich symbolic play into coherent patterns in music, painting, poetry, drama, writing of music and constructive living.

Gradually the realization of the part played by music and allied arts in the development of children grows on the teacher. If the child is transformed in multiple ways, mainly he turns from his preoccupation with emotional life and anchors his unruly longings and passions without creating war between them. In course of time he approximates a scientist and launches his campaign of inquiry into the how and why of sound and sound combination, and begins to understand the terms fast slow, loud soft, high low, heavy light, gay and sad, and makes his own analogies. A growing interest in the works of great composers urges him to study standard compositions and thus answer many questions covering wider field.

Miss Bailey's book is not a scientific treatise on the methodology of teaching music. It is more descriptive in conception. The strategy she adopts in developing the child is to follow up his natural interests and the drives behind his work and play as well as the devices used by him to solve technical problems encountered. It is modestly written and reveals a belief in the creative spirit of man and the goodness of communal life which finds inspiration, relaxation and refreshment in music. It does not postulate that art, as such, is of prime importance. To Miss Bailey it is a means towards the ideal of good life.

The book throws many sidelights on developmental activities of children and affords valuable insights to the practising teachers of music, dance, drama and mime etc. Its utility to the Indian teachers, however, is somewhat limited owing to its texture being woven round Western music.

Its core concept nevertheless is universal in application and has wide implications for reform in approach to the teaching of art and music—both Eastern and Western.

The collection of nursery rhymes and folk songs and folk music appended with code offers guidance to teachers of western music in the compilation of their anthology for the classroom and in the selection of pertinent items for daily use according to the age and characteristics of children.

The book is an inspiring document and makes a valuable addition to the personal collection of lovers of children and their music.

ANNIE COELHO

Home and School, February, 1960; St. Thomas School, New Delhi; Price Re. 1.00; pp. 29

"Home and School" is the mouth-piece of the Parent-Teacher Association of the St. Thomas School, New Delhi. This is the inaugural issue which contains many articles of interest in addition to a symposium, "Is Homework Necessary?" contributed to by a parent, a teacher and a student. Almost all the contributions, that have been made either by parents or by teachers, give an insight into some of the vital questions affecting what is the common interest of both teacher and parent—the child. To stimulate this kind of thinking is, according to the sponsors of the Association, the most important aim of the journal.

There can be no doubt about the necessity and importance of parent-teacher cooperation in the growth of the child into the right type of adult. This journal, which seems to be the first of its kind, is, therefore, a step in the right direction. If the journal deserves a lot of encouragement, it also requires some improvement in the selection of types, inking and proof correction.

ABUL HASAN

कामायनी की व्याख्यात्मक आलोचना : लेखक—विश्वनाथ लाल 'शैदा'; प्रकाशक—हिन्दी प्रचारक पुस्तकालय, वाराणसी; मूल्य 8.00; 1959

यह निर्विवाद है कि कामायनी आधुनिक हिन्दी साहित्य का युग-काव्य है। प्रसाद-साहित्य की सर्व प्रमुख कृति में कामायनी ने साहित्य क्षेत्र में प्रचुर अलोड़न की सृष्टि की थी। कामायनी का आधार एक ओर भारतीय दर्शन की पृष्ठ भूमि है और दूसरी ओर ऐतिहासिक जल-प्लावन की घटना द्वारा मानव संस्कृति के प्रतिष्ठापन की कथा है। कुछेक आलोचकों ने काव्य

के कथानक को एक रूपक मान लिया है और बहुतों ने इसमें ऐतिहासिक दार्शनिकता का स्वरूप देखा है। कामायनी के प्रमुख नायक 'मनु' के माध्यम से और चिन्ता, आशा, श्रद्धा, काम, वासना, लज्जा आदि रूपकों से लेखक ने पूरे मानविक, मानसिक और प्राकृतिक कर्म पद्धति का दार्शनिक विश्लेषण किया है।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में कामायनी की व्याख्यात्मक आलोचना की गई है। लेखक ने आमुख में कामायनी के दार्शनिक और ऐतिहासिक पृष्ठभूमि पर विस्तार पूर्वक विचार किया है। प्राचीन वैदिक और संस्कृति साहित्य और पाश्चात्य आलोचकों और विचारकों की सहायता से कामायनी की भूमिका को समझाने का सुन्दर प्रयत्न किया है विशेषुत: 'जल-प्लावन' और काव्यात्मक तत्वों के समावेश का विशद विवरण है। संस्कृत के महा-काव्यों के साथ और महाकाव्यों के लक्षणों का साम्यक विवरण कामायनी के पाठकों और आलोचकों के लिए उपयोगी है।

मूल ग्रन्थ में कामायनी के छंदों की व्याख्या, विश्लेषण और शब्दावली के अर्थ विस्तृत रूप से दिये गये हैं। प्रत्येक छन्द के विश्लेषण में भारतीय और पाश्चात्य कवियों और आलोचकों के विचारों से तुलनात्मक आलोचना और विश्लेषण किया है। इस दिशा में संस्कृत और अंग्रेजी के उद्धृतियों का प्रयोग व्याख्यात्मक आलोचना के लिए उपयुक्त ही बन पड़ा है।

कामायनी पर समय-समय पर अनेक टीका और समालोचना पुस्तकें प्रकाशित हो चुकी हैं किन्तु इनी गिनी दो-चार आलोचना पुस्तकों को छोड़कर आधुनिक आलोचना पद्धतियों के अनुसार कामायनी की आलोचना का नितान्त अभाव है। यह पुस्तक इस दिशा में अच्छा प्रयत्न है। हिन्दी साहित्य में आलोचना और टीका की साधारण पुस्तकों की भीड़ में यह पुस्तक कुछ नूतनता और स्वस्थ आलोचना का स्वरूप लेकर आई है। आशा है कामायनी के अब तक प्रकाशित टीकाओं और समालोचनाओं में यह पुस्तक अपना स्थान बना लेगी। हिन्दी समालोचना साहित्य में प्रस्तुत पुस्तक एक सुन्दर संयोजना है। कालेज और यूनिवर्सिटी के विद्यार्थियों के लिए पुस्तक अत्यन्त उपयोगी सिद्ध होगी।

छपाई और गेटअप स्वच्छ है।

कार्तिक चन्द्र दत्त

१६वीं तथा २०वीं सदी में यूरोप-मूल लेखक—इ. लिप्सन; अनुवादक—डा० मथुरालाल शर्मा; प्रकाशक–गया प्रसाद एण्ड संस, आगरा; पृष्ठ संख्या 413; 1960

श्री लिप्सन द्वारा लिखित Europe in the 19th & the 20th Centuries उच्च कक्षा के विद्यार्थियों में काफी प्रचलित रही है जिसका स्पष्ट प्रमाण है पुस्तक के सात संस्करण। फ्रांस की राज्यक्रान्ति के बाद के यूरोप का सम्बद्ध वृत्तान्त लिखने वालों में अनेक प्रभूत विद्वान हैं, किन्तु इस पुस्तक का उन रचनाओं में श्रेष्ठ स्थान है जिन्होंने यूरोप के इतिहास के अध्ययन के लिए एक नवीन दृष्टिकोण प्रस्तुत किया है। यहां ऐतिहासिक घटनाओं के वर्णन की अपेक्षा राजनैतिक एवं आर्थिक विचारधाराओं के विकास को प्रधानता मिली है। यहां राजवंशों के युद्ध वंशावली, राज्यविस्तार आदि का उल्लेख केवल जन-जीवन की राजनैतिक, आर्थिक एवं सामाजिक परम्पराओं के तारतम्य बनाए रखने के लिए हुआ है। लेखक ने अपनी 'भूमिका' में भी कहा है कि उसका दृष्टिकोण कथात्मक न होकर विवेचनात्मक है।

हिन्दी में इस प्रकार के इतिहास लिखने का प्रयत्न बहुत कम हुआ है। मूल लेखक ने इस संस्करण में प्रथम एवं द्वितीय महायुद्ध के बीच का प्रकरण जोड़कर पुस्तक की उपादेयता को बढ़ा दिया है। यह अनुवाद–विद्वान एवं विद्यार्थी–दोनों के बीच समान स्वागत की अपेक्षा करता है। अनुवाद प्रस्तुत कर डा० मथुरालाल शर्मा ने सराहनीय कार्य किया है।

मुल पुस्तक में श्री लिप्सन की भाषा जटिल एवं क्लिष्ट है। बड़े-बड़े वाक्यों के प्रयोग के कारण भाषा की दुरुहता और भी बढ़ गई है। डा० शर्मा ने अनुवाद की भाषा को सरल बनाने का स्तुत्य प्रयास किया है। उर्दू के शब्दों का कहीं कहीं प्रयोग भी है किन्तु अप्रयासजनित, सम्पूर्ण अनुवाद में हिन्दी भाषा की प्राञ्जलता अक्षुण्ण दिखाई देती है।

मुद्रण और प्रकाशन मध्यम श्रेणी के हैं। कहीं कहीं अक्षर और मात्राएँ छूट गई हैं। फिर भी इस

प्रकार की ग़ल्तियां कम हैं। भाषा एवं व्याकरण की अन्य त्रुटियां नहीं दिखाई पड़ती।

इस अनुवाद की मुख्य विशेषता है भाषा का अविकल प्रवाह जिससे पाठक थकता नहीं और उसकी उत्सुकता निरंतर बनी रहती है। छोटे-छोटे वाक्यों की आकर्षक शैली ने भी अनुवाद को रुचिकर बना दिया है।

कई विश्वविद्यालयों के पाठ्य-ग्रंथों में मूल रचना का समावेश है। हिन्दी अनुवाद के पश्चात इसे अन्य विश्वविद्यालयों के पाठ्य-ग्रंथों में भी स्थान मिलना चाहिए जिससे उच्चकोटि के इतिहास के अध्ययन का प्रसार हिन्दी-भाषियों में बढ़े तथा हिन्दी में मौलिक रचनाओं के लेखकों को प्रोत्साहन मिले। D. K.

शिक्षण मापन का इतिहास—सिद्धान्त तथा प्रयोग ; लेखक—डा० एस० रावत; प्रकाशक—गया प्रसाद एण्ड संस, आगरा; मूल्य 6.00 रु०

शिक्षण मापन (Educational Measurement) आज की शिक्षा-व्यवस्था का एक महत्वपूर्ण अंग है। आधुनिक शिक्षा और शिक्षण-समस्या पर कोई भी खोज मापन और परख पर निर्भर है। छात्रों का मानसिक विकास, रुचि, और योग्यतानुसार विषयों का पठन-पाठन ही आधुनिक शिक्षा-व्यवस्था की माप काठी है। शिक्षण मापन विधि अध्यापक को छात्रों और शिक्षा-व्यवस्था के बारे में वास्तविक स्थिति का ज्ञान कराती है और शिक्षा की समस्याओं का हल ज्ञात करने में सहायता मिलती है। यह विषय वस्तुत: पाश्चात्य देशों में भी अभी प्रयोगात्मक स्थिति में है। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक में 'शिक्षा मापन' के इतिहास, सिद्धान्त और प्रयोग पर विस्तृत आलोचना की गई है। यद्यपि पाश्चात्य देशों में इस विषय पर प्रचुर साहित्य उपलब्ध है और इसका पठन-पाठन अंग्रेजी के माध्यम से ही होता रहा है पर हिन्दी भाषा में शायद यह पुस्तक इस विषय पर प्रथम पुस्तकों में है। पुस्तक ट्रेनिंग कालेज के छात्रों के लिए लिखी गई है इसीसे पाठ-क्रम में इस विषय से सम्बन्धित तथा छात्रों की सुविधा को देखते हुए पाठ-सूचि के अनुकूल परिच्छेदों में विभक्त है। हिन्दी में इस विषय की पाठ्य-पुस्तकों का अभाव बहुत अंशों तक इस पुस्तक से दूर होगा।

अनुक्रमिका, अंग्रेजी के पर्याप्त शब्दों का सूची पत्र और सहायक पुस्तकों की सूची पुस्तक की उपयोगिता को बढ़ा देते हैं। टेकनिकल शब्दों के अनुवाद उपयुक्त ही बन पड़े हैं किन्तु अच्छा होता यदि अधिकृत पारिभाषिक शब्दावली के शब्द ही प्रयोग में लाए जाते।

हिन्दी भाषा की समृद्धी में योग देने के लिए लेखक धन्यवाद के पात्र हैं। छपाई स्वच्छ है, गेट-अप साधारण।

सत्यवती वर्मा

विज्ञान शिक्षण: लेखक—एम० एस० रावत एवं मुकुट बिहारी लाल; प्रकाशक; गया प्रसाद एण्ड संस, आगरा; मूल्य 3.25 रु०

शिक्षण विषयक साहित्य का हिन्दी में अत्यन्त अभाव है। इन शैक्षनिक विषयों का पठन-पाठन अब तक अंग्रेजी के माध्यम से ही होता रहा है। हिन्दी भाषा के माध्यम से वैज्ञानिक विषयों का अध्ययन निश्चय ही हिन्दी के चतुर्मुखी विकास का परिचायक है। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक का प्रकाशन उस दिशा में एक नया कदम है। 'विज्ञान शिक्षण' में लेखकों ने विज्ञान के पाठ्यक्रम सिद्धान्तों और विज्ञान शिक्षण के ऐतिहासिक विकास का परिचय संक्षेप में दिया है। विषय सामग्री यद्यपि अंग्रेजी भाषा के अधिकृत पुस्तकों से ली गई ह फिर भी संकुलन और विश्लेषण में लेखकों ने पर्याप्त परिश्रम किया है। शिक्षण के क्षेत्र में नित-प्रति के परिवर्तनों के साथ समन्वय रखना अत्यन्त आवश्यक है, विशेषत: विज्ञान जैसे नित-परिवर्तनशील विषय में तो यह बहुत ही आवश्यक हो जाता है। इस दिशा में पुस्तक एक अच्छी प्रचेष्टा है। बुनियादी शिक्षा ही आधुनिक शिक्षा प्रणाली का प्रमुख आलोच्य विषय है और बेसिक शिक्षा को ही हमारी सरकार ने भी मान्यता दी है। इसीलिए बेसिक शिक्षा में विज्ञान का क्या स्थान होना चाहिए यह एक महत्वपूर्ण प्रश्न है। लेखकों ने इस विषय पर भी संक्षिप्त आलोचना की है। हमारे स्कूलों के पाठ्यक्रम में विज्ञान को अभी वह

स्थान प्राप्त नहीं हो पाया है जो विदेशों में है। फलतः, विज्ञान-शिक्षण अभी तक उसी रूढ़ीगत स्थिति में है। विज्ञान की शिक्षा दूसरे विषयों की शिक्षा से कुछ आधारभूत भिन्नता रखती है। पुस्तक में विज्ञान शिक्षण के प्रयोगात्मक और सैद्धान्तिक विषयों पर आलोचना की गई है विशेषत: परीक्षा-प्रणाली के दोष-गुणों की आलोचना शिक्षकों के लिए उपयोगी सिद्ध होगी। पाठ-योजना और पाठ-सूत्रों के नमूने अध्यापकों और ट्रेनिंग कालेज के छात्रों के लिए उपयोगी होंगे।

हमारे देश में अच्छे विज्ञान शिक्षकों का नितान्त अभाव है। आशा है पुस्तक के द्वारा विज्ञान की समस्याओं को अध्यापक अच्छी तरह समझ सकेंगे। पुस्तक की छपाई और गेट्-अप साधारण है।

पुष्पा सिंह

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विज्ञान जगत : लेखक—विलियम एच० क्राउस; अनुवादक—देवेन्द्र कुमार, प्रकाशक—राजपाल एण्ड संस, दिल्ली; मूल्य 3 रुपये, 1959

विज्ञान की कोई भी अच्छी पुस्तक हमारे लिये नूतनता की द्योतक है। आये दिन हो रहे आविष्कारों के सहारे हम लोग कितने आगे बढ़ते जा रहे हैं। इसका अनुमान साधारण जीवन में नहीं होता, कारण यह कि हम इसके महत्व का अनुबोधन नहीं कर पाते। सिर्फ जब कोई विशिष्ट घटना जैसे स्पूटनिक, लूनिक आदि सूर्य या चन्द्र के चारों ओर चक्कर काटने लगते हैं तो हमारे नेत्र आश्चर्य से विस्फरित हो जाते हैं। अन्यथा सभी साधारण, लोग जो वैज्ञानिक साहित्य से दूर रहते हैं अनिच्छाकृत अज्ञानता से ग्रसित रहते हैं।

प्रस्तुत पुस्तक विलियम एच० क्राउस कृत Understanding Science का हिन्दी अनुवाद है। पाश्चात्य देशों में विज्ञान के विषय की जानकारी के लिए नयी पुस्तकें समय-समय पर प्रकाशित होती रहती हैं क्योंकि वहां के जन-साधारण वैज्ञानिक उन्नति की धारा के साथ सतत परिचय रखना चाहते हैं। इसीलिए वहां सुगम भाषा में विज्ञान की पुस्तकों का अभाव नहीं है। यह पुस्तक भी इसी प्रकार की वैज्ञानिक-साधारण-ज्ञान की पुस्तक है। लेखक ने पुस्तक में वैज्ञानिक सिद्धान्तों की साधारण-सरल व्याख्या करके दिखाया है कि किस प्रकार मनुष्य ने इन सिद्धान्तों को अपने दैनिक जीवन के लिये उपयोगी बनाया है। हमारे रहन-सहन, चाल-चलन, और सोचने समझने की सारी प्रक्रियाओं में विज्ञान ने अपना स्थान बना लिया है। पुस्तक के प्रथम खण्ड में वैज्ञानिक सिद्धान्तों का विश्लेषण है और बाद के अध्यायों में सिद्धान्तों के उपयोगों को दर्शाया गया है। पुस्तक को आदि से अन्त तक पढ़ने के पश्चात् ऐसा लगता है मानो एक ही पुस्तक द्वारा हमने न जाने कितना ज्ञान प्राप्त कर लिया। हमारे प्रतिदिन के व्यवहार और देखने सुनने की चीजें जैसे टेलीफोन, रेडियो, सिनेमा, फोटोग्राफी आदि के आविष्कारों की कहानी पढ़ कर हम आश्चर्य चकित रह जाते हैं। पुस्तक ऐसे लोगों के लिए जिन्हें विज्ञान का सीमित ज्ञान है किन्तु वैज्ञानिक आविष्कारों और जानकारी के प्रति उत्सुक हैं, अत्यन्त उपयोगी है। पुस्तक बड़े-बूढ़े और बालकों के लिए समान रूप से उपयोगी है। विशेष रूप से प्रौढ़-नवशिक्षार्थियों और किशोर छात्रों के लिए पुस्तक ज्ञान का भण्डार है। पुस्तक की सुगम भाषा और कठिन से कठिन विषय के विश्लेषण की रीति सरल और आकर्षक है।

हिन्दी अनुवाद सुन्दर बन पड़ा है, अनुवाद में अति साधारण शब्दों का प्रयोग करके अनुवादक ने अच्छा ही किया, अन्यथा पुस्तक का उद्देश्य ही विफल हो जाता।

रोहिणी प्रकाश

प्रेमचन्द : सुभाषित और सूक्तियाँ : सम्पादक—श्री शरण; प्रकाशक—नारायण दत्त सहगल एण्ड संस, दिल्ली; मूल्य 4.25 रु०; 1959

प्रेमचन्द साहित्य एक विशाल समुद्र के समान है, उपन्यास, कहानियां, नाटक, अनुवाद, जीवनियां और निबन्धों के इस विशाल समुद्र में हजारों मोतियां भरे हैं। प्रेमचन्द साहित्य की पृष्ठभूमि है देश के पिछड़े हुए गांव और शहरों का निष्पेक्षित पीड़ित और रूढ़ीगत समाज। देश की सामाजिक स्थिति का सही प्रतिरूप उनके साहित्य में प्रतिबिम्बित है। इसके साथ ही उनकी प्रत्येक कृति किसी न किसी सामाजिक उद्देश्य को लेकर लिखी गई है। प्रत्येक कहानी कोई न कोई सन्देश अवश्य देती है। प्रत्येक का कोई न कोई नैतिक मूल्य अवश्य है। इसी कारण इन कहानी, उपन्यासों में जहां तहां सूक्तियां

ग्रौर सुभाषित बिखरे पड़े हैं। प्रस्तुत पुस्तक इन्हीं सूक्तियों, सुभाषितों, ग्रौर उद्धतियों का छोटा-सा संकलन है। लेखक ने प्राय: सम्पूर्ण प्रेमचन्द साहित्य से खोज खोज इन सूक्तियों ग्रौर सुभाषितों को इकट्ठा किया है। इस कठिन परिश्रम के लिए सम्पादक धन्यवाद के ग्रधिकारी हैं। लेखक ने इन सूक्तियों को प्राय: सवासो साम्भव्य विषयों के ग्रन्तर्गत बांट दिया है। विषयों के चयन में पर्याप्त मतानैक्य हो सकता है, क्योंकि विषय का कोई सीमित क्षेत्र नहीं होता। वस्तुत: ऐसी पुस्तकों के लिए विषयों की स्थापना के समय दो बातों का ध्यान रखना चाहिए—प्रथमत: विषयों का उपयुक्त वर्गीकरण, द्वितीयत: सूक्तियों ग्रौर उद्धतियों का सही संयोजन। इस दिशा में लेखक यदि ग्रौर ग्रधिक सावधानी से काम लेते तो पुस्तक की उपयोगिता ग्रौर बढ़ जाती ग्रौर ग्रनावश्यक विषयों की भीड़ न बढ़ती ग्रौर न ही ग्रनावश्यक उद्धृतियां ही पुस्तक में स्थान पा सकतीं। कहीं-कहीं पर तो पूरे के पूरे पैरे ही ग्रा गये हैं ग्रौर कुछेक विषयों का संयोजन हास्यास्पद ग्रौर ग्रनावश्यक है जैसे खिलाड़ी, युवक-युवती, सुसराल, कर्लक ग्रादि।

कुछ कमियों के होते हुए भी पुस्तक एक सुन्दर प्रयास है ग्रौर प्रेमचन्द साहित्य का नया रूप है।

H. S. S.

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